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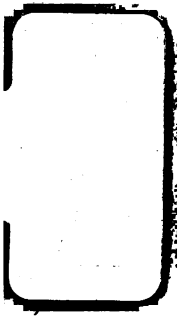

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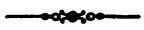

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And admonish them that they write after a fair and seemly fashion. He that no more than maketh a mark, let him not be heedless nor lubbardly therein, but rather set down the same with prudence and circumspection; seeing that the littlest jot of the pen may e'en be (as Ulpian saith) matter for weighty adjudication.

—FALCONER, *Praecepta Magistrandi.*

PREFACE

In order to write English in a way that befits an educated person, one must know a certain body of rules. The term *rules* is here used in a wide sense, including not only general precepts, such as the dictum that in a sentence "every part should be subservient to one principal affirmation," but also those numerous particular precepts which refuse to merge themselves into convenient generalizations — for instance, those to the effect that it is bad English to say "I devote my evenings in study" for "I devote my evenings to study," that the verb *except* should not be used in the sense of *accept*, nor the noun *principle* in the sense of the adjective *principal*, and that *all right* should be written as two words, the first spelled with two *l*'s. When I say that one must *know* these rules, I mean that one must not merely be acquainted with them, but habitually observe them.

Some of these rules are known and followed by nearly every person who has grown up in an English-speaking community. Nearly every such person knows, for example, the correct meaning of several hundred English words (that is to say, he knows several hundred rules directing how these words should be used); knows how to spell certain words, fewer than those which he knows how to use; and knows that the pronoun *I* and such nouns as *John*, *Mary*, *Smith*, and *Jones* should be capitalized. But ignorance of many other rules — which might easily be enumerated if there were any need — is shared by children in the grammar school, boys and girls in high school, high-school graduates of recent and of long standing, college freshmen, college seniors, bachelors and masters of arts, and members of the learned professions.

With this fact in mind, I published in 1907 a little book called a *Handbook of Composition*, the purpose of which was to present the rules that, so far as I had observed, were unknown to any considerable number of the class of people

mentioned above. Since that time my attention has been drawn to other deficiencies of the same sort as those treated in the *Handbook*. Some of these are matters of good English (technically so called), phraseology, sentence-structure, reference, and the structure of compositions; others concern the mechanical processes involved in writing — that is, manuscript-arrangement, spelling, the compounding of words, the use of abbreviations, the representation of numbers, syllabication, capitalization, italicizing, punctuation, and paragraphing. The rules necessary for correcting these mechanical deficiencies I have formulated in this book; and along with them I have incorporated most of the rules of the *Handbook* that concern the same subjects, altering them as there seemed to be occasion, and illustrating them more fully.

I have said that in order to write as befits an educated person, one must not only be acquainted with certain rules but also observe them habitually. Learning to write well, then, is more than being informed of these rules; it is getting the rules fixed in one's habitual practice. To assist the student in this latter part of the work is the object of the exercises in the present book. Some of these are little more than manual exercises; but such, I think, are just what in many cases students of writing need. Many people who write "to hot" and "finaly" and "alright" are acquainted with the rules which they thereby violate; it is their hands that need discipline.

I hoped that the *Handbook* would find a place in the service of many who were not studying English in the classroom, — who were not students in any school or college, — but had writing of some sort to do, and wanted occasional help in doing it; and this hope has been realized, to my great pleasure. Likewise I have wished to make the present book as helpful as possible to any one who needed the information it should contain, whether he was in a college, a high school, an office, or a warehouse. Nevertheless, most of the people who may find the book useful will be, as a matter of course, students under the direction of teachers. I have devised certain apparatus, to facilitate its use by such students, which I wish now to explain.

The chief benefit derived from theme-writing lies probably in the instructor's indication of errors in the themes and his showing how these errors are to be corrected; for by these means the student may learn the rules that he is inclined to violate, and thus may be helped to eliminate the defects from his writing. Hence it is important that the errors and the way to correct them be shown to the student as completely and clearly as possible. For instance, suppose that a theme contains the sentence "I have always chosen for my companions people whom I thought had high ideals." Suppose the instructor points out the grammatical fault and gives the student information to this effect: "An expression such as *he says*, *he thinks*, or *he hears* interpolated in a relative clause does not affect the case of the subject of the clause. For example, 'The man who I thought was my friend deceived me' is correct; 'who' is the subject of 'was my friend'; 'I thought' is a parenthesis which does not affect the case of 'who.' In your sentence, 'whom' is not the object of 'thought,' but the subject of 'had high ideals'; it should therefore be in the nominative case." From this information the student is likely to get more than the mere knowledge that the "whom" in this particular case should be changed to "who"; he is likely to learn a principle, the knowledge of which — if he will remember it — will keep him from committing similar errors in future.

But the theme from which one sentence is quoted above contains fourteen other errors; and the forty-nine other themes which the instructor is to hand back to-morrow morning contain among them about seven hundred and eighty-five more. How shall the instructor, as he indicates these eight hundred errors, furnish the information called for by each one? Obviously he must use some kind of shorthand. Suppose, then, that he writes opposite the incorrect "whom" above quoted the expression "Gr." or "b. E." or "case." Do these expressions furnish the student with the information he needs regarding that "whom"? It seems to me that they do not. They are intended to imply all that information, but I doubt whether one student out of five hundred ever sees the implication. To be sure, four hundred and ninety-six out of five hundred will, possi-

bly, see that something is wrong with "whom," and will change it to "who" or will eliminate it in some other way —for instance, by altering the sentence thus: "People who seemed to have high aspirations have always been selected by me for companions." But they will do this without knowing why any change should be made; and thus the correction of the error will fall short of the instructive value which it should have, and which it would have if it were made intelligently.

Yet shorthand must be used in correcting themes. Is there no system of shorthand which conveys to the student the information he should have regarding each error marked in his themes? There is such a system; it consists of references to a book. If the writer of the theme containing the erroneous "whom" has a book which explains, in a section numbered 33, the grammatical rule that he has violated, the instructor can do his duty in the premises by writing "33" opposite the "whom"; and if the book contains likewise a piece of information appropriate to the other seven hundred and ninety-nine errors above supposed, each piece placed under a reference number, the instructor can do his duty in the case of the seven hundred and ninety-nine errors by writing a reference number opposite each one. The *Handbook* was designed, and the present book has been designed, to be used in this way.

To illustrate further the use of the present book for reference in the correction of themes, suppose a page of a student's theme reads as follows:

> My associates have usualy been choosen with some consideration of there morality. Boys, who I (thought) beleived posessed good principals.
> My fathers buisness made it neccesary, for our family to move about considerably so I have been thrown amoung (the) many differant classes of people, (the) easterners, northerners, westerners and southerners,

(the) chinese, germans, and french, have all been under my observation this enabeles me to feel at home every-where and judge different kindes of men quick -ly and with-out difficulty.

The errors in this passage can be indicated, and the writer can be referred to the information on each point by means of the following numbers, which designate sections in this book:

	My associates have usualy	70
101	been choosen with some cons-	173–175
101	ideration of there morality. Boys,	463,307,336
46	who I (thought) beleived posessed	96, 98
93	good principals.	32, 33
482	My fathers buisness made it	66
101	neccesary, for our family to	452
	move about considerably so	279,280,282
	I have been thrown amoung	101
46	(the) many differant classes	101
293,294,46,197	of people, (the) easterners, nort-	173,174,178
197, 328	herners, westerners and southerners,	197
46	(the) chinese, germans, and	198
198	french, have all been under	329
292, 257, 203	my observation this enabeles me	80 *a*, *b*
129, 180	to feel at home every-where and ju-	
101, 73	dge differant kindes of men quick	
183	-ly and with-out difficulty.	129

The writer of the passage might also be advised to do, more or less at his leisure, the following exercises:

627, concerning "usualy"
678, concerning "cons-ideration," "nort-herners," "ju-dge," and "quick -ly"
657, concerning "there"

683, 719, 720, concerning "morality. Boys"
707, 708, concerning "Boys, who"
655, concerning "beleive"
651, concerning "principals"
739, 742, concerning "fathers"
622, 623, concerning "buisness"
689, concerning "considerably so"
683, 698, 699, concerning "people, (the) easterners"
680, concerning "chinese, germans, and french"
684, 685, concerning "observation this"
634, concerning "enabeles"
629, concerning "kindes"
672, 675, concerning "every-where" and "with-out"

The synopsis on pages xvi–xxxi will enable a teacher who is fairly familiar with the book to find in a few seconds any reference number he desires. Copies of the synopsis printed in the form of a chart, by means of which one can find all the reference numbers without turning pages, will be furnished by the publishers to teachers who desire them.

So much for the book as a whole. Now I wish to speak particularly of the system of separative punctuation presented in sections 229–481.

Of the system both the plan and the phraseology were determined largely by one dominating purpose: to make an instrument that would be effective in combating the comma fault and the period fault, those twin vices so common and yet so baffling — the despair of teachers. I say "twin vices" because it is clear that they spring from one fundamental deficiency — failure to recognize the distinction between the integral syntactic unit and constituent, or subordinate, units. A writer commits the comma fault thus:

> "Then I rushed to get my breakfast, it was good but I could not linger at it,"

because he does not see that there are in this expression two integral syntactic units. He commits the period fault thus:

> "My parents were extremely afraid of the river. That is to have me near it,"

because he does not see that here there is only one integral unit.

Why is it so hard for people to learn that the period belongs only at the end, and the comma only in the interior, of an integral syntactic unit? Because they are not so instructed. They are instructed that the period belongs only at the end, and the comma only in the interior, of a *sentence*. This is the root of the difficulty — our calling the integral syntactic unit a *sentence*. For the integral syntactic unit is an independent subject and predicate, or a pair or series of such syntactically conjoined. But what is a sentence? Most students are taught that it is "the expression of a complete thought." Therefore, instructed to use the comma only within a sentence, they say "Very well," and proceed to write,

> "She found that Gabriel had departed on the preceding day, this was very disheartening news,"

feeling that this is a "complete thought," and that therefore the comma is right. Instructed to use the period only at the end of a sentence, they write,

> "The author points his moral in a very clear way. In a way that any child can understand and yet the story is deep,"

feeling that this is two "complete thoughts," and that therefore the period is right. Again, *sentence*, as the term is generally used by writers and teachers, includes expressions like these:

> "He is not a Russian; he is a Pole."
> "I came, I saw, I conquered."
> "Hath a Jew money? is it possible a cur can lend three thousand ducats?"

Such expressions are not syntactic units, for the junction in them is mechanical or rhetorical, not syntactic. What, then, is a sentence? It is like the wreck of the *Flying Scud:* "Any one can make half a dozen theories for sixty

or seventy per cent of it; but when they're made, there's always a fathom or two of slack hanging out of the other end." At any rate, *sentence* does not and can not stand, to students' minds, clearly and distinctly for the integral syntactic unit; it is not a syntactic, but a rhetorical term. But the only sure basis for rules of punctuation is syntax; that is, the only certain rules of punctuation are those that say, "Use such and such a mark with such and such a syntactic element." If we wish to teach students how to recognize the end of an integral syntactic unit, we cannot succeed by explaining in terms of *sentence*. Hence the use of the term *complete independent predication* in the present work.

Certain rules of punctuation in the following pages will, I suppose, be hard sayings to some readers. For instance, of the rule that a noun in apposition with a noun not expressed should be set off by a dash (378), some readers will say, "But in literature such appositions are set off by other symbols than the dash."

This is true; and in framing the rule cited, I have not intended to suggest that it is not true. But to tell the reader one way of punctuating such an appositive, and not to trouble him with a discussion of permissible alternatives, seemed to accord best both with the needs and with the wish of most of my readers. The people for whose aid and comfort I have written are, in the course of their writing, continually asking themselves or somebody else, "How should this be punctuated? What point goes here? Should I put a colon here? Is it all right to omit this comma?" and they want a short, quick answer. Their thought is "Just give me a direction by following which I may be sure I am right; I don't want to know all the ways, but just one good way." Such a direction I have tried to give for the case in question, and for other cases as far as possible.

Certain other rules of punctuation stand on a different basis; these are the prohibitions — the assertions that certain things should not be done. For example, there are the heavily stressed rules denouncing as an Unpardonable Sin the placing of a comma at the end of a complete independent predication (293), or the placing of a period before final clauses and phrases (463). These things so

threateningly forbidden are, it will be said, done by every good writer of flexibility and spirit.

This is also true. But still the prohibitions are sound doctrine; teachers should enforce them rigorously on their students, and students should enforce them rigorously on themselves. If a young person censured for the comma fault remonstrates, "Stevenson does it," the obvious answer is, of course, "You are not Stevenson." This sounds like a flippant evasion, but in reality is eminently (though perhaps not sweetly) reasonable and just. For some rules of punctuation, like some rules of rhetoric, may be violated in various ways — in ways that are ludicrously uncouth, and in ways that produce no such effect. This is a point that the young remonstrant always forgets. Let us illustrate. A certain rule of rhetoric prohibits dangling participles. This rule is violated in the sentence "Having eaten our lunch, the horse quickened his pace"; the effect is plainly bad, as even the most indulgent critic will admit. But the rule is also violated by Charles Lamb when he writes, "Coming into an inn at night — having ordered your supper — what can be more delightful than to find lying in the window-seat, left there time out of mind by the carelessness of some former guest, two or three numbers of the old *Town and Country* magazine . . . ?" And here the violation of the rule has no bad effect. The knowledge of when the violation of such a rule will produce a conspicuous fault which will catch the attention of a casual reader, and when it will seem unexceptionable to a fastidious rhetorician, can scarcely be conveyed by rules; it can be acquired only by experience. A literary master possesses this knowledge. Through wide observation and long practice and a quick sensitiveness to the subtle effects of words in various combinations, he knows intuitively whether an expression that violates a certain rule will produce a bad effect or not; hence his violations are hardly noticeable. But a writer of little experience is likely, if he violates certain rules, to produce in most cases signal blunders; these rules it is therefore best for him to observe rigorously, until he has acquired the power to waive them, as the masters do, without risk of offense. And among these rules are the prohibitory rules of punctuation referred to above — particularly those regard-

ing the comma fault and the period fault. These are not laid down with the claim that they cannot be violated without incorrectness; but violation or lax observance of them *by inexperienced writers* means incessant blundering, and a slovenliness of style which is abominable in the present, and which can lead to no good in the future; strict observance of them is wholesome discipline conducive to the growth of a firm, clean-cut style.

In the latter part of Professors Scott and Denney's *Paragraph Writing*, the authors make admirable use of some illustrative diagrams resembling ladders lying in a horizontal position. These figures suggested to me the strategic design of assaulting the paragraph by escalade, a design which I have tried to execute in Sections 538–583. Professor William Dwight Whitney's *Essentials of English Grammar*, that most admirable classic, and Professor J. M. D. Meiklejohn's ample store of *data* on English grammar, have helped me greatly in some parts of my work. I am very much obliged, also, to my colleagues who have given me advice and assistance.

E. C. W.

MADISON, WISCONSIN,
October, 1909.

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SYNOPSIS OF THE RULES

Numbers less than six hundred refer to rules
Numbers greater than six hundred refer to exercises

MANUSCRIPT

Manuscript

WRITING MATERIALS
- Unruled paper **1**
- Only one side of paper to be used **3**
- Black ink or typewriter **2**

FORM OF LETTERS AND SYMBOLS
- Letters
  - Conspicuous ornament **4**
  - Dots and cross-strokes
    - Omission **5**
    - Placing at random **6**
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THE MECHANICS OF WRITING

MANUSCRIPT

Writing Materials

Writing materials

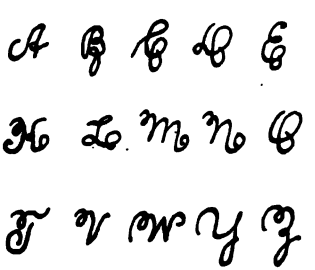
1. The paper for the manuscript of a literary composition should be unruled, unless special circumstances, such as the regulations of a class, require the contrary. **2.** The writing should be done either with a typewriter or with black ink. **3.** Only one side of each sheet of paper should be written on.

Only one side of paper to be used

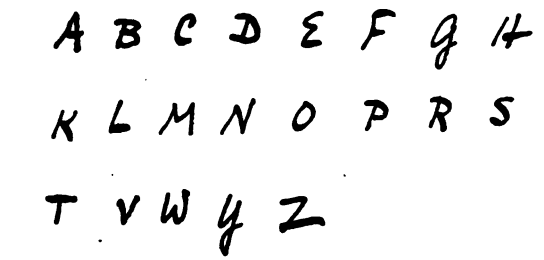
Formation of Letters and Symbols

Conspicuous ornament

4. In forming a letter do not decorate with flourishes not necessary for identifying it, or with conspicuous shading. Avoid especially such forms as the following:



Prefer plain forms like the following:

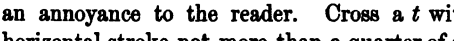


Dots and cross-strokes

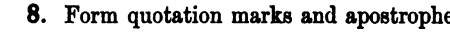
5. Do not neglect dotting *i's* and *j's* and crossing *t's* and *x's*. **6.** Place the cross of a *t* across the stem of the *t*, not elsewhere. Place the dot of an *i* or a *j* immediately above the *i* or the *j*, not elsewhere. **7.** Making the crosses of *t's* conspicuous for their length, peculiar shape, or peculiar direction is a hindrance to legibility and an annoyance to the reader. Cross a *t* with a straight horizontal stroke not more than a quarter of an inch long.

Shape of quotation marks and apostrophes

8. Form quotation marks and apostrophes, not as in this illustration:



but as in this:

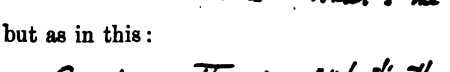


Roman numbers:

9. Horizontal cross-strokes at the top and the bottom of Roman numbers are unnecessary except to distinguish I, II, and III from 1, 11, and 111; with other numbers such strokes need not be used.

Cross-strokes

Right:



10. A cross-stroke should never be drawn under a V, an L, a C, or an M in any Roman number; nor above a C or an M.

Right:

IV V VIII XLVII MCVIII

11. When two or more consecutive stems in a Roman number are cross-stroked, a separate stroke for each stem should not be made in manuscript; one continuous stroke should be used.

Right:

II III IV VII XXI

But preferable:

II III IV VII XXI

12. The Roman symbol for 4 is IV. The symbol IIII is incorrect, except on the dials of timepieces. IV, not "IIII"

13. Roman numbers were, according to old usage, always followed by the period. But this custom no longer obtains. No period after Roman numbers

Right: Chapters IV, V, and VI are of chief importance.

Words

14. Do not leave gaps between consecutive letters in a word. Especially avoid leaving a wide interval between an initial capital and the rest of the word. Gaps between letters

BAD:

Daniel was born in Rhode Island. He went to school in Providence.

Right:

Daniel was born in Rhode Island. He went to school in Providence.

Oblique *and*

15. Do not write *and* on an oblique line.

BAD:

My brother and I

Right:

My brother and I.

Lines

Space between words

16. Do not crowd consecutive words close together.

HARD TO READ:

The policeman took his number, and later arrested him.

Improved:

The policeman took his number, and later arrested him.

Extra space after period etc.

17. Between a period, a question mark, an exclamation mark, a semicolon, a colon, a word immediately before a direct quotation, the last word of a direct quotation, — between any of these and a word following on the same line, leave double the usual space between words.

BAD:

I called; there was no answer. Then "Pshaw!" I said to myself. "He must have forgotten."

Right:

I called; there was no answer. Then "Pshaw!" I said to myself. "He must have forgotten."

18. Do not crowd marks of punctuation close to one another or to the words next them. Crowding marks of punctuation

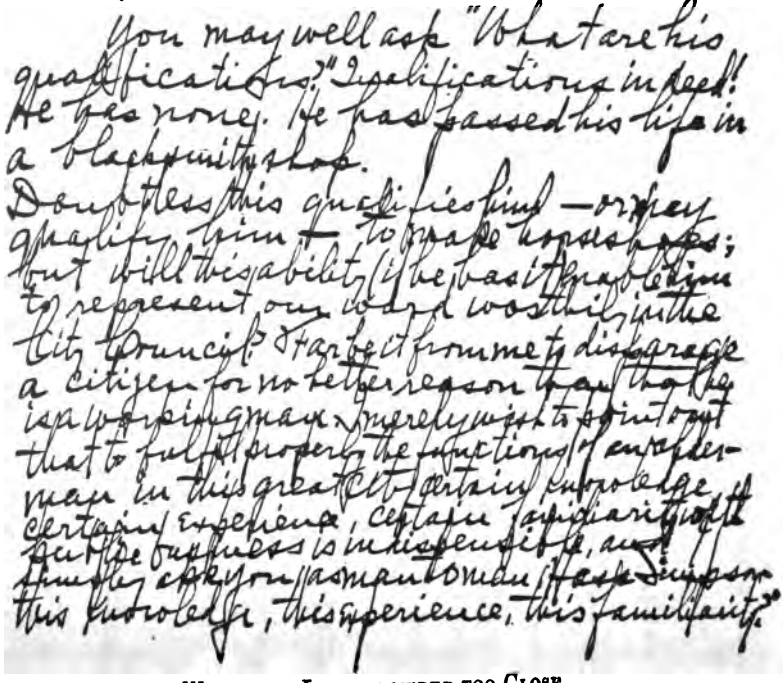
BAD:

"My message? — my message?" he repeated. "What message? What are you talking about?"

Right:

"My message? — my message?" he repeated. "What message? What are you talking about?"

19. Let a liberal space intervene between consecutive lines in a manuscript. Do not let the loops of *f's*, *g's*, *j's*, *q's*, *y's*, and *z's* in any line descend below the general level of the loops of *b's*, *f's*, *h's*, *k's*, and *l's* in the line below. (Compare the illustrations on pages 6 and 7.) Space between lines



WORDS AND LINES CROWDED TOO CLOSE.

You may well ask, "What are his
qualifications?" Qualifications in-
deed! He has none. He has passed
his life in a blacksmith shop. Doubt-
less this qualifies him — or may
qualify him — to make horseshoes;
but will this ability (if he has it)
enable him to represent our ward
worthily in the City Council? Far

WORDS AND LINES PROPERLY SPACED.

LINES

7

Crowding at bottom of page

20. Do not crowd the writing at the bottom of a page; take a new page.

Pages

Page numbers

21. The pages of a manuscript should be numbered at the top, in Arabic, not Roman numbers.

Position of title

22. The title should be written at least two inches from the top of the page. Between the title and the first line of the composition at least an inch should intervene.

Margin at the top

23. The first line of each page should stand at least an inch from the top of the page.

Margin at the left

24. There should be a blank margin of at least two inches at the left side of each page.

The right-hand margin

25. The right-hand ends of the lines of writing on a page of manuscript should not vary unnecessarily in distance from the edge of the page. The right-hand margin of a manuscript need not be, like that of a printed page, perfectly straight; but it should not be conspicuously straggling in outline.

BAD (observe the straggling right-hand margin):

James Barrie met at the house of
a friend in Paris a Mr.
Scudamour. For some reason
or other, Scudamour got
the impression that James's name
was Henry. A few years
later James met Scudamour in

Improved (compare the right-hand margin with that of the preceding copy):

James Barrie met at the house of a friend in Paris a Mr. Scudamore. For some reason or other, Scudamore got the impression that James's name was Henry. A few years later James met Scudamore in

Paragraphs[1]

26. In manuscript the first line of every paragraph should be indented at least an inch — that is, should begin at least an inch farther to the right than lines that do not begin paragraphs. Indention

WRONG:

My fellows in the office would sometimes rally me upon the trouble legible in my

Right:

My fellows in the office would sometimes rally me on the trouble legible in my

[1] See Exercise 601.

Initial quotation mark

27. When the first word of a paragraph is preceded by a quotation mark, the indention should be measured from the margin to the quotation mark, not from the margin to the first word. The following indention is right:

tell the truth. I said, "Perhaps
you don't feel like it."
"Yes, I do," he answered.
"Well, read on then," said I.
He read, and it was wonderous bad, and he paused at

Paragraphs of one line

28. A paragraph occupying only one line — *i.e.*, one consisting of a very few words or of only one word — should be begun at the same distance from the left-hand margin as any other paragraph, as in the following:

"What do you mean?" said
the man. "I have money."
"It is not that."
"What is it then?"
The landlord answered
quietly, "You have money."
"Yes."
"But I can't spare a
room."

Numbered paragraphs

29. When a paragraph is marked by a number or a letter, the indention should be measured from the margin to the number or letter, not from the margin to the first word.

Right:

I. What power has Congress to punish crimes?

II. State in what cases the Supreme Court has original jurisdiction.

III. How are presidential electors chosen? Would it be constitutional for a state legislature to choose them?

Irregular indention

30. The first lines of all paragraphs should begin at the same distance from the margin; do not indent the beginning of one paragraph an inch, that of another two inches, that of another half an inch, etc.

Incorrect indention

31. No line except the first line of a paragraph should be indented in the slightest.

Partially blank line in the midst of a paragraph

32. After the end of a sentence do not leave the remainder of the line blank unless the sentence ends a paragraph; begin the next sentence on the same line if there is room.

WRONG:

The star-group of the squills, garlics, and onions, has always caused me great wonder.

I cannot understand why its beauty should have been associated with the rank scent which has been the means of degrading peasant life,

Right:

The star-group, of the squills, garlics, and onions, has always caused me great wonder. I cannot understand why its beauty should have been associated with the rank scent which has been the means of degrading peasant life, and separating

Partially blank line followed by flush line

33. Where a partially blank line is followed by a line which is not indented, there is a blunder in manuscript arrangement. If the partially blank line is the last of a paragraph, the failure to indent the following line is a blunder; if the following line is not the first of a new paragraph, to leave the preceding line blank is a blunder. In such a case, either the preceding line should be filled out, or else the following line should be indented. For example, the manuscript arrangement in the following illustration is wrong:

the green leaves; for though the Greeks knew nothing about carbonic acid, they knew that trees and flowers fed on air.

Now, note in this, the myth of the air getting at ploughed ground. You know

In the foregoing passage it is not clear whether or not a new paragraph begins with "Now." If a new paragraph is to begin with "Now," the passage should be written as follows:

the fresh leaves; for though the Greeks
knew nothing about carbonic acid,
they knew that trees and flowers
fed on air.

Now, note in this, the myth of
the air getting at ploughed ground. You

If a new paragraph is not to begin with "Now," the passage should be written thus:

the fresh leaves; for though the Greeks
knew nothing about carbonic acid
they knew that trees and flowers
fed on air. Now, note in this, the
myth of the air getting at ploughed
ground. You know, I told you

Writing Verse[1]

Left-over parts of lines

34. If an entire line of poetry cannot be written on one line of the page, the part left over should be carried on and indented as shown in the following example:

[1] Cf. Rule 213; and see Exercises 602–606.

Right:

Lombard and Venetian merchants with deep-laden
argosies;
Ministers from twenty nations; more than royal
pomp and ease.

WRONG:

Lombard and Venetian merchants with deep-laden argosies;
Ministers from twenty nations; more than royal pomp and ease.

Irregular indention in verse

35. Left-over parts of lines should begin at the same distance from the edge of the page.

WRONG:

But there is neither East nor West, Border nor
Breed nor Birth
When two strong men stand face to face, though
they come from the ends of the earth.

Right:

But there is neither East nor West, Border nor
Breed nor Birth
When two strong men stand face to face, though
they come from the ends of the earth.

Grouping of verse into lines

36. A quotation of poetry should be grouped into lines exactly as the original is grouped.

BAD:

Once to every man and nation
Comes the moment to decide
In the strife of truth with falsehood for the
Good or evil side.

Right:

Once to every man and nation comes the moment to
decide
In the strife of truth with falsehood for the good or
evil side.

Verse set apart on the page

37. A quotation of verse occurring in a prose composition should begin on a new line. The prose following such a quotation should also begin on a new line, indented if it

gins a new paragraph, flush with the left-hand margin
it continues the paragraph containing the quotation,
oth before and after the quotation sufficient space
ould intervene than the regular space between
ve lines.

WRONG:

While Tennyson admits that sorrow may be for our ultimate advantage, and that as the great metaphysician says, "Men may rise on stepping stones
Of their dead selves to higher things,"
yet he finds it impossible to get any present consolation from the thought.

Right:

While Tennyson admits that sorrow may be for our ultimate advantage, and that as the great metaphysician says,

"Men may rise on stepping stones
Of their dead selves to higher things,"

yet he finds it impossible to get any present consolation from the thought.

Extended Quotations of Prose

38. A passage of prose quoted from a written author
ion or a formal speech, if it is three or four sentences
ng or longer, should be set apart from the matter
ding and following it, in the same way as a quotation
verse (see Rule 37).

Right:

The plea of every inventor of a new gun or explosive, that his invention will end all war by making it too frightful for humanity to engage in it is disputed by States Councilor Dr. von Bruna, who bases his calculations on the proportion of killed and wounded shown by the government reports of the Russo-Japanese War. He writes:

"The loss in killed and wounded a proportion to the number engaged, was as high in the Manchurian campaign as [illegible] bloodiest battle in the wars of

1870–71, on the German side. The proportion o those who died on the field of battle is much highe than in previous wars (the Chino-Japanese, the Turk ish-Greek, the American-Spanish, and the Boer wars) The proportionate number of those seriously wounde or laid up by their injuries is much smaller than i previous wars. The proportion of those slightl wounded is much higher than in previous wars More than a tenth of the wounded were able t return to the ranks, and one half of them returne to active duty at the expiration of three months."

The idea which is said to have inspired Richard Jordan Gatling in inventing his famous weapon — namely, tha he might make battles shorter and more fatal to com batants, and war intolerable and eventually impossibl — Dr. von Bruns declares is illusory.

Tabulated Lists

Hanging indention

39. A list of items set down in tabular form should be written with what is technically called hanging indention; *i.e.*, in those items that consist of more than one line, the first line should extend farther to the left than the remaining lines.

WRONG:

The principal powers of the President are —

(*a*) The power to conduct foreign affairs
(*b*) The power to command the army and navy in time of war
(*c*) The power to veto bills
(*d*) The power to appoint officers (subject to the approval of the Senate)

Right (observe the hanging indention in items *b* and *d*):

The principal powers of the President are —

(*a*) The power to conduct foreign affairs
(*b*) The power to command the army and navy in time of war
(*c*) The power to veto bills
(*d*) The power to appoint officers (subject to the approval of the Senate)

40. A list of items in tabular form should be set apart from the matter preceding and following it, in the same manner as a quotation of verse (see Rule 37). **Tabulated matter set apart on the page**

BAD:

Under this subject there are three important headings:
(*a*) Position of pronouns
(*b*) Use of connectives
(*c*) Position of phrases; all of which are to be carefully studied.

Right:

Under this subject there are three important headings:
(*a*) Position of pronouns
(*b*) Use of connectives
(*c*) Position of phrases
all of which are to be carefully studied.

NOTE. — Another way of correcting the errors above shown is to write the passage without tabulating the items, thus:

Right: Under this subject there are three important headings: (*a*) Position of pronouns, (*b*) Use of connectives, and (*c*) Position of subordinate expressions; all of which are to be carefully studied.

Alterations in Manuscript

41. A few words to be inserted in a manuscript should be written above the line, and their proper position should be indicated by the caret (∧), placed below the line. Words so inserted should not be inclosed in parentheses or brackets unless these marks would be required were the words written on the line. **Insertion**

Right: A big cat was prowling under the window.
∧

42. The sign to be used in making insertions is ∧, not "∨." **Inverted caret**

43. Words to be inserted should not be written at the bottom of the page preceded by an asterisk (*) corre- **Misuse of asterisk**

sponding with an asterisk at the place where they are to be inserted. This use of the asterisk is proper only for annotations * (as at the bottom of this page) — never for insertions in the text.

Insertion run over to next line

44. Obscurity results from writing an insertion in the manner shown in the *Bad* example below:

BAD:

as an agreeable means
Although tennis is at present very popular ∧ it probably
of exercising the muscles,
will never rank with football as a game for supremacy between colleges.

Right:

as an agreeable means of exercising the muscles,
Although tennis is at present very popular ∧ it probably will never rank with football as a game for supremacy between colleges.

Right:

as an agreeable means
Although tennis is at present very popular ∧ ~~it probably~~
of exercising the muscles, it probably
∧will never rank with football as a game for supremacy between colleges.

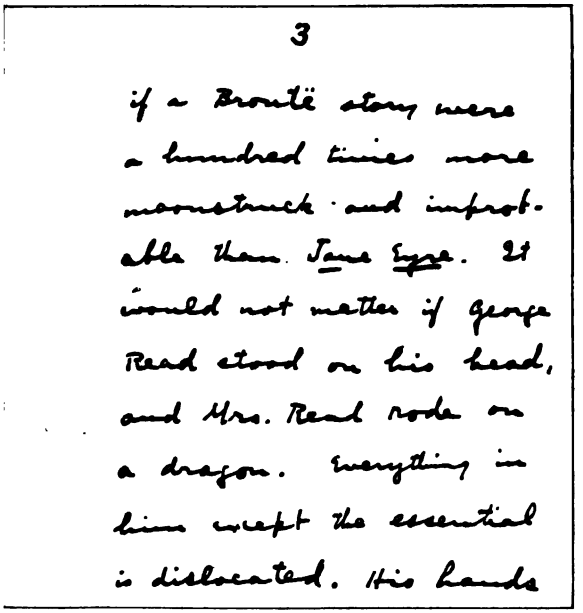
Insertions of several lines

45. When a passage that will occupy several lines is to be inserted in the midst of a page of manuscript, the insertion should be made in one of the following ways:

(*a*) When the place at which the insertion is to be made is in the lower half of the page, the matter following that place should be canceled, the passage to be inserted should be written, followed by the canceled matter, on a fresh page, and the fresh page should be numbered with an intercalary number (*e.g.*, 6*a*, — signifying that the page comes between page 6 and page 7, — 3*a*, 1*a*, etc.) and inserted after the page on which the canceled

* An annotation is a comment or explanation, often written at the foot of a page, and in that case called a footnote. In modern usage, footnotes are usually referred to by means of small figures, technically called superiors. See, for example, the footnotes on page 31 of this book.

matter first stood. For example, suppose page 3 of a manuscript is like the following illustration: Insertions of several lines


3
if a Brontë story were
a hundred times more
monstrous and improb-
able than Jane Eyre. It
would not matter if George
Read stood on his head,
and Mrs. Read rode on
a dragon. Everything in
him except the essential
is dislocated. His hands

and suppose it is desired to insert after "dragon," in line 8, the following sentence: "The typical Brontë character is, indeed, a kind of monster." The matter following "dragon" should be canceled. Then the sentence to be inserted should be written on an intercalary page numbered 3*a*, and should be followed by the matter canceled at the bottom of page 3. Pages 3 and 3*a* should then be as represented in the illustrations on the following page.

Insertions of several lines

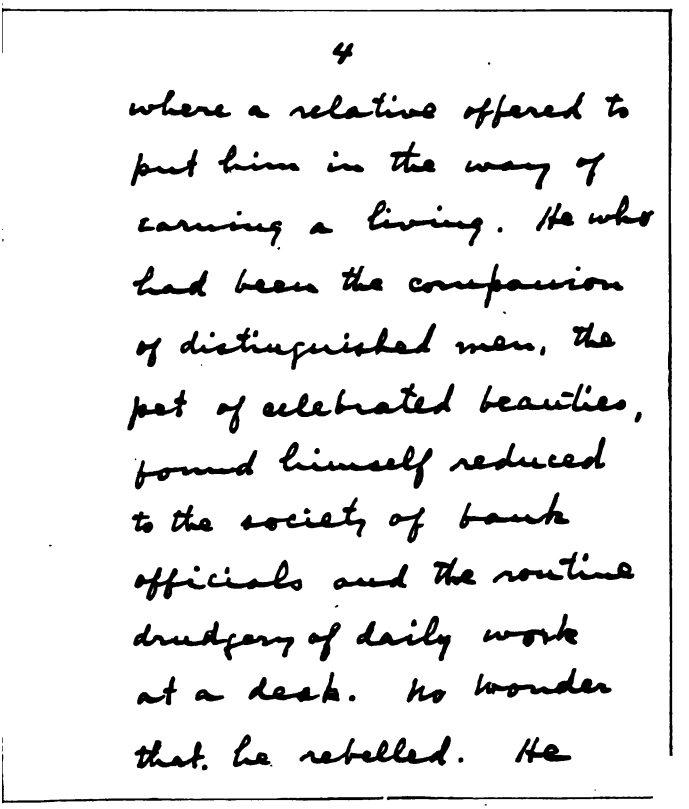
3

if a Brontë story were a hundred times more moonstruck and improbable than Jane Eyre. It would not matter if George Read stood on his head, and Mrs. Read rode on a dragon. ~~Everything in him except the essential is dislocated. His hands~~

3a

No 9 The typical Brontë character is, indeed, a kind of monster. Everything in him except the essential is dislocated. His hands,

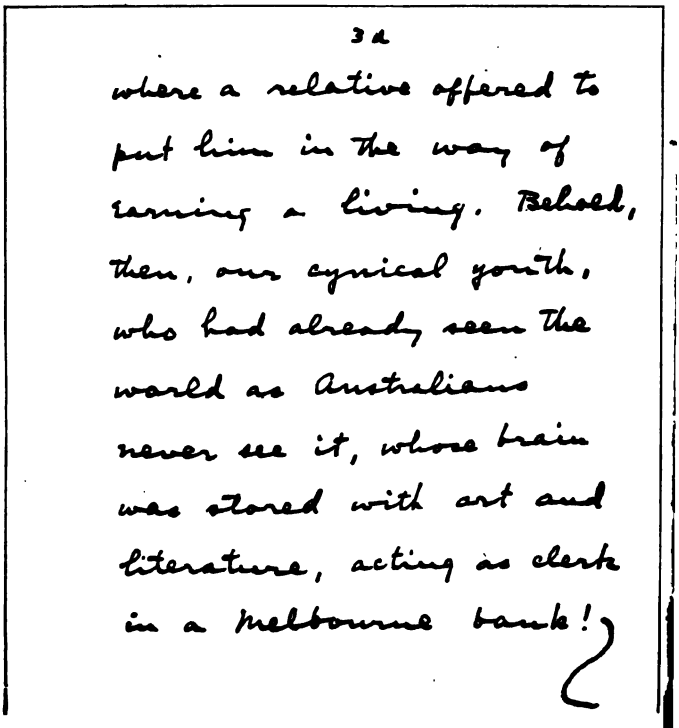
(*b*) When the place at which the insertion is to be made is in the upper half of the page, the matter preceding that place should be canceled where it stands and should be copied, followed by the passage to be inserted, on a fresh page, and this page should be marked with an intercalary number and inserted *before* the page on which the canceled matter first stood. For example, suppose page 4 of a manuscript is like the following illustration: Insertions of several lines

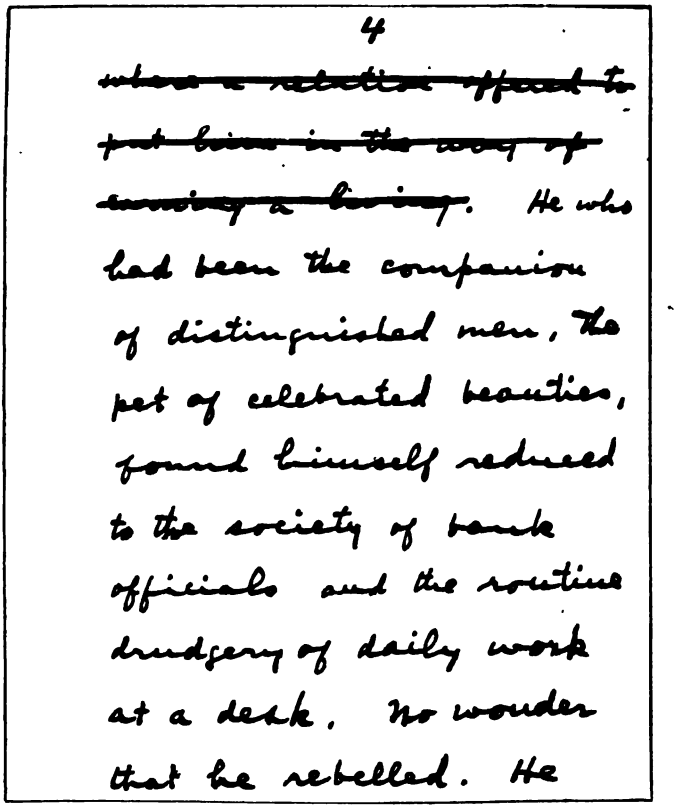

4

where a relative offered to put him in the way of earning a living. He who had been the companion of distinguished men, the pet of celebrated beauties, found himself reduced to the society of bank officials and the routine drudgery of daily work at a desk. No wonder that he rebelled. He

Insertions of several lines

and suppose it is desired to insert after "living," in line 3, the following passage: "Behold, then, our cynical youth, who had already seen the world as Australians never see it, whose brain was stored with art and literature, acting as clerk in a Melbourne bank!" The insertion should be made on an intercalary page numbered 3*a*, as shown by the following illustrations:


3a
where a relative offered to
put him in the way of
earning a living. Behold,
then, our cynical youth,
who had already seen the
world as Australians
never see it, whose brain
was stored with art and
literature, acting as clerk
in a Melbourne bank!



46. Erasures should be made by drawing a line through the words to be canceled. Parentheses or brackets should not be used for this purpose. Erasure

47. Words written in one place which are to be transposed to another, should be canceled (see Rule 46) and inserted in the proper place by the method shown in Rule Transposition

41 or by that shown in Rule 45. No other method of transposition should be used.

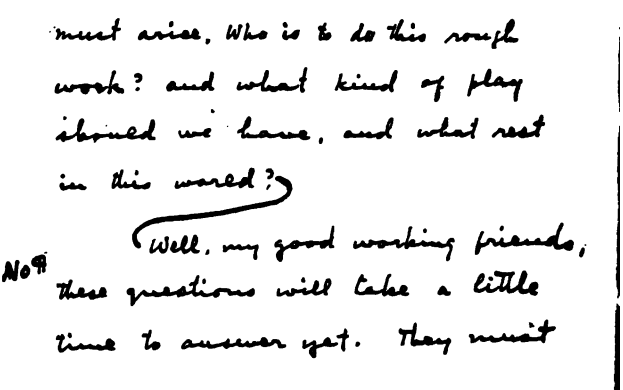
Indicating a new paragraph

Sign ¶ wrong side before

48. When it is desired that a word standing in the midst of a paragraph should begin a new paragraph, the sign ¶ should be placed immediately **before that word.** The change should not be indicated otherwise. **49.** Observe that in the paragraph sign ¶ the curved member extends to the *left* of the upright member.

Canceling a paragraph division

50. The way to cancel a paragraph division is to write in the margin the expression *No* ¶, or to draw a curved line as shown in the following illustration:


must arise. Who is to do this rough
work? and what kind of play
should we have, and what rest
in this world?
No¶
Well, my good working friends,
these questions will take a little
time to answer yet. They must

The Finished Manuscript

Pages in order

Not to be rolled

Corners square

51. (*a*) The pages of a finished manuscript should be placed in numerical order. (*b*) The manuscript should not be rolled; it should go to its destination either flat or folded as simply as possible. (*c*) If a manuscript is folded, it should be folded neatly, so that the edges are straight and the corners square: otherwise it gives an impression of slovenliness.

SPELLING

Effects of Suffixes[1]

52. In monosyllables[2] and words accented on the last syllable, ending in one consonant[2] (except *x*) preceded by one vowel[2] or by *qu* and one vowel, the final consonant is doubled before a suffix beginning with a vowel; *e.g.*, *bid, bidden; god, goddess; quiz, quizzes; occur, occurrence.* Hence the following rules (53–56): **53.** A verb of the class of words described, doubles the final letter when *ed* or *ing* is added. Thus: *drop, dropped, dropping; plan, planned, planning; equip, equipped, equipping.* **54.** An adjective of the class described doubles the final letter when *en* is added. Thus: *sad, sadden; glad, gladden; flat, flatten.* **55.** An adjective of the class described doubles the final letter when *er* or *est* is added. Thus: *glad, gladder, gladdest.* **56.** Any word of the class described doubles the final letter when *ish* or *y* is added. Thus: *man, mannish; squab, squabby.*

Doubling of final consonants: In general. Before *ed* and *ing*. Before *en*. Before *er* and *est*. Before *ish* and *y*.

57. Rule 52 does not usually apply to words in which the accent is shifted to a preceding syllable; thus: *refer, referred,* but *reference; confer, conferring,* but *conference; equip, equipped,* but *equipage.* But *excel, excellence.*

Mistaken applications: (i) Receding accent

58. The final consonant in words not accented on the last syllable is not usually doubled before a suffix. Thus: *benefit, benefited; combat, combated, combatant.* In

(ii) *Benefit* etc.

[1] See Exercises 607–628.

[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Worship, travel, etc.

the words *worship* and *kidnap* and numerous words ending in *l* preceded by one vowel and not accented on the last syllable (*e.g.*, *bevel, chisel, civil, counsel, imperil, jewel, quarrel, tassel, trammel, travel, tunnel*), the final consonant *may* be doubled before a suffix beginning with a vowel; but it is better not to double it; it is better to write, *e.g.*, *worshiper, worshiping, worshiped; kidnaped; traveler, traveling, traveled,* etc.

(iii) Suffix beginning with consonant

59. A final consonant is not doubled before a suffix beginning with a consonant. Thus: *fit, fitting,* but *fitness; equip, equipped,* but *equipment.*

Picnicked etc.

60. Words ending in *c* add *k* before a suffix beginning with *e, i,* or *y.* Thus: *picnic, picnicked, picnicker; shellac, shellacked; traffic, trafficking, trafficker; panic, panicky.*

Silent *e* dropped

61. Words ending in silent *e* usually drop the *e* before a suffix beginning with a vowel. Thus: *love, lovable; stone, stony.* Hence, a verb ending in silent *e* drops *e* when *ing* is added. Thus: *shine, shining; come, coming; settle, settling.* But note:

Noticeable etc.

62. Words ending in *ce* or *ge* do not drop *e* when *ous* or *able* is added. Thus: *notice, noticeable; outrage, outrageous.*

NOTE. — *C* and *g* in words of French, Latin, and Greek derivation usually have the soft sound before *e, i,* and *y,* as *cede, genial, civil, giant, cyanide, gymnasium;* elsewhere they have the hard sound, as *calendar, Gallic, code, gorgon, acute, gusto.* (*Get, geese, gew-gaw, geld, giddy, gift, gig, giggle, gild, begin, gird, girdle, girl,* and *give* are not of the above-mentioned derivation.) Notice how the principle applies to *accent, accident, flaccid, occiput, accept, accurate, desiccate, except, excuse.* On account of this principle, the *e* must be retained in such words as *noticeable* and *courageous,* in order to keep the soft sound of *c* and *g.*

63. Words ending in silent *e* do not usually drop *e* before a suffix beginning with a consonant; *e.g.*, *careless, hopeless, noiseless, completely, severely, lonely, largely, separately, politely, intimately, fortunately, careful, hateful, useful, tuneful, movement, statement, announcement, politeness, rudeness, crudeness, whiteness.* Exceptions: *abridgment, acknowledgment, judgment, lodgment, argument, awful, duly, truly, wholly.* *Severely* etc.

64. A common noun ending in *y* preceded by a consonant forms the plural in *ies*; as *library, libraries.* A noun ending in *y* preceded by a vowel forms the plural in *ys*; as *valley, valleys; display, displays.* As to proper nouns ending in *y*, see Rule 76. *Final y: Plurals*

65. A verb ending in *y* preceded by a consonant forms its present third singular in *ies* and its past in *ied.* Thus: *rely, relies, relied; marry, marries, married.* *Verbs*

66. Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant usually change the *y* to *i* before a suffix. Thus: *beauty, beautiful; busy, business; carry, carriage; handy, handicraft; happy, happiness; lonely, loneliness; many, manifold; marry, marriage; mercy, merciful; merry, merriment; necessary, necessarily; weary, wearily, weariness.* *Happiness* etc.

67. Verbs ending in *ie* change *ie* to *y* before *ing.* Thus: *lie, lying; die, dying; tie, tying; vie, vying.* *Lying* etc.

68. Verbs ending in *y* do not drop the *y* before *ing.* Thus: *study, studying; hurry, hurrying; carry, carrying; marry, marrying; bury, burying.* *Studying* etc.

69. Adjectives ending in *n* do not drop the *n* before *ness.* Thus: *sudden, suddenness; drunken, drunkenness; stubborn, stubbornness; sullen, sullenness; green, greenness.* *Suddenness* etc.

Finally etc.

70. Words ending in *l* do not drop the *l* before *ly* Thus: *final, finally; real, really; actual, actually; casual, casually; original, originally; practical, practically; cool, coolly; continual, continually; general, generally; principal, principally.*

Accidentally etc.

71. *Accident, intention, incident, occasion,* and *exception* do not take *ly* to form adverbs, but *ally.* Thus: *accident, accidentally.*

Heroically etc.

72. Adjectives in *ic* do not take *ly* to form adverbs, but *ally.* Thus: *heroic, heroically; poetic, poetically; prosaic, prosaically; artistic, artistically; dramatic, dramatically.*

Inflectional Endings[1]

Plurals in *s* and *es:*

Consonant ending

73. (*a*) Common[2] nouns ending in a consonant[2] usually add *es,* to form the plural, when the plural has an extra syllable; when the plural has no extra syllable, they add only *s.* Thus: *lass, lasses; lad, lads.* (But note Rule 74.)

Final *w*

(*b*) Nouns ending in *aw, ew,* and *ow* form the plural by adding *s.* (Cf. Rules 64 and 77*b*.) Thus: *law, laws; saw, saws; view, views; cow, cows.*

Plurals in *ves*

74. The words *leaf, thief, sheaf, wife, life, knife, half, calf, wolf, loaf, shelf, elf, self,* and compound words ending in *self* form the plural in *ves.* Thus: *leaf, leaves; yourself, yourselves.*

Plural of nouns in *o*

75. Of common[2] nouns ending in *o,* some add *es* to form the plural; *e.g., bravadoes, buffaloes, calicoes, dadoes, desperadoes, dodoes, dominoes* (game), *echoes, fandangoes, fiascoes, heroes, indigoes, innuendoes, jingoes, mangoes, manifestoes, mosquitoes, mottoes,*

[1] See Exercises 629–631.

[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

mulattoes, negroes, noes ("the ayes and noes"), *potatoes, tomatoes, viragoes, volcanoes.*

Some add only *s*; *e.g.*, *albinos, altos, bagnios, bambinos, bamboos, banjos, bassos, boleros, bolos, bravos, bronchos, burros, cameos, cantos, casinos, cellos, chromos, cuckoos, curculios, curios, didos, dominos* (costume), *duos, dynamos, Eskimos, farragos, fiascos, Filipinos, folios, guanos, gumbos, hallos, halos, imbroglios, intaglios, largos, lassos, limbos, lingos, llanos, medinos, mementos, merinos, Moros, mottos, nuncios, octavos, olios, peccadillos, pesos, pianos, piccolos, pimentos, pimlicos, portfolios, provisos, punctilios, quartos, sagos, salvos, seraglios, shakos, silos, solos, sopranos, stilettos, tallyhos, taros, tobaccos, torsos, tremolos, trios, typos, tyros, zeros.*

As to the plural of proper[1] nouns ending in *o*, see Rule 76.

76. *All* proper[1] nouns, including those ending in a vowel,[1] form the plural by adding *s* if the plural has no extra syllable; *e.g.*, "the three Marys," "the Harrys and the Percys," "the Othellos of modern times." All proper nouns ending in silent *e* form the plural by adding *s*; *e.g.*, "the four Georges," "the Stones," "the Whites." Proper nouns ending in a consonant[1] form the plural by adding *es* if the plural has an extra syllable; *e.g.*, "the Rogerses," "the Waterses," "the Charleses." (The plurals of proper names of the last class are often improperly formed by adding *'s*. See Rule 490.)

Plural of proper nouns

77. (*a*) Verbs ending in a consonant add *es*, to make the present[1] third singular form, only when that form has an extra syllable; when it has no extra syllable, they add only *s*. Thus: *miss, misses; proclaim, proclaims.*

Present third singulars in *s* and *es*: Final consonant

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Final *w* or *y* preceded by vowel

(*b*) Verbs ending in *ay*, *ey*, *oy*, and in *aw*, *ew*, *ow* form the present third singular by adding *s*; *e.g.*, *displays, says, obeys, enjoys, saws, sews, rows.*

Stem Terminations [1]

The ending *ful*

78. The adjective suffix in such words as *useful, beautiful, careful* should be spelled with one *l*.

The ending *ous*

79. The adjective suffix in such words as *studious, humorous, glorious* should be spelled *ous*, not *us*.

Endings *el* and *le*

80. (*a*) Words ending in *el* are few, compared with those ending in *le*. In most of those ending in *el* the final syllable is preceded by *v*, *m*, or *n*. Thus: *bevel, drivel, gavel, gravel, hovel, level, navel, novel, ravel, revel, dishevel, shrivel, snivel, travel, camel, enamel, trammel, channel, flannel, funnel, kennel, panel, tunnel, babel, label, libel, angel, chapel, model, vessel, counsel, tassel, chisel, hazel, weazel, quarrel, nickel, pickerel, mantel* (a chimney-piece).

But *able, amble, addle, axle, angle, ankle, apple, Bible, babble, bramble, buckle, battle, bottle, bubble, bridle, baffle, cable, cradle, coddle, crackle, candle, castle, dandle, dazzle, dawdle, double, dwindle, eagle, edible, feeble, fable, fondle, fickle, gable, giggle, goggle, gamble, handle, huddle, ingle, icicle, juggle, jangle, jingle, knuckle, ladle, marble, muddle, maple, measles, middle, noble, nibble, ogle, paddle, poodle, people, possible, quibble, riddle, rabble, rifle, ripple, settle, stable, sable, sample, staple, subtle, saddle, suckle, stumble, sparkle, sprinkle, sickle, table, tumble, tackle, title, topple, tremble, trestle, trifle, tickle, trickle, twinkle, uncle, waddle, wrinkle, wrestle, whistle, mantle* (garment).

[1] See Exercises 632–635.

(*b*) In forming the present third singular, the participle, and the past of a verb ending in *le*, do not insert an *e* before the *l*. Incorrect insertion of *e* before *l*

Right:	Right:	Right:	Right:
handle	handles	handling	handled
enable	enables	enabling	enabled
ladle	ladles	ladling	ladled
settle	settles	settling	settled
saddle	saddles	saddling	saddled
tremble	trembles	trembling	trembled
twinkle	twinkles	twinkling	twinkled

81. Note that *alley, hockey, jockey,* and *shinney* end in *ey*. *Alley* etc.

Prefixes [1]

82. In *also, always, already, almost, altogether* the *l* is single. **83.** But *all right* is two separate words, *all* spelled with two *l's*. *Always, already,* etc.

There is no such word as "alright" or "allright."

Right: The furnace is all right.
Right: "Harness the horse." — "All right; I will."
Right: "Don't forget." — "All right; I won't."

84. In *describe, description, desire, despair, despise, destroy,* and *destruction* the first syllable is *de*. *Describe* etc.

Similar Words often Confounded [2]

85. *Except* (verb) means *to exclude;* as "He alone was excepted from the amnesty." *Except* (preposition) means *with the exception (i.e., exclusion) of;* as "All's lost except honor." *Except* is not to be confused with *accept,* which means *to receive.* *Accept* and *except*

86. Regarding *advise, advice, devise,* and *device* remember the following formula: *Advice, advise, device, devise*

[1] See Exercises 635, 661. [2] See Exercises 636–660.

Nouns	*Verbs*
advice	advise
device	devise

Affect and *effect*

87. *Effect* is both a noun[1] and a verb.[1] As a noun it means *result* (*e.g.*, "The drug had a fatal effect") or *influence* (*e.g.*, "His companionship has a bad *effect* on you"). As a verb it means *to produce, to accomplish* (*e.g.*, "He effected a reconciliation").

Affect is a verb[1] only. It means *to influence* (*e.g.*, "Trade would be seriously affected by a war"). **Affect is a verb only; there is no noun "affect."**

WRONG: The music had a soothing affect. [The writer means *a soothing influence;* and *affect* means *influence.* But *affect* is a verb. The writer should use the noun that means *influence.*]
Right: The music had a soothing effect.

Already and *all ready*

88. *Already*, which is an adverb,[1] is not to be confounded with *all ready*, which is an adjective[1] preceded by *all.*

Right: He has already finished it. ["Already" modifies "finished."]
Right: We are all ready to help; just say the word. ["All" is in apposition with "we"; "ready" is a predicate adjective completing "are."]
Right: Your car is all ready, sir. ["Ready" is a predicate adjective completing "is"; "all" is here (as often) an adverb (= *quite*, *entirely*) modifying the adjective "ready."]
Right: Is this shirt all ready to wear?
Right: Already his doom was sealed.
Right: All ready! Get set! Go!

Lead and *led*

89. The principal parts[1] of the verb *to lead* are *lead, led, led.*

Right: Lead me. All right; I will lead you.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Right: He led me. Did you notice how he led the orchestra? I thought he led it very well.
Right: They were led into a dark room. Who has led you here? I thought it genuine, but I see I was misled.

Lose and *loose*

90. *Lose* is a verb[1] (*e.g.*, "I feared I should lose the game. In losing it I should lose the championship"). *Loose* is an adjective[1] (*e.g.*, "The cow is loose").

O and *oh*

91. In modern prose (the rule does not hold in poetry) the spellings *O* and *oh* of the common interjection are employed as follows: *O* is used when the interjection serves as the poetic or archaic sign of direct address;[1] as "I am come, O Cæsar," "O ye spirits of our fathers," "O God, we pray Thee," "I fear for thee, O my country." When the interjection is used in any other way than as the sign of direct address, — that is, in the great majority of cases, — it is spelled *oh; e.g.*, "Oh no, it is no trouble," "Oh! you ought not to do that," "My child! oh, my child!" "I will do it — and oh, by the way, where's the key?" **92.** *O* should always be capitalized, and, when used in the manner stated above, should not be followed by any mark of punctuation. *Oh* is not capitalized except at the beginning of a sentence, and may be followed by an exclamation point, a period, a comma, or no mark at all.

Principal and *principle*

93. Of the two words *principal* and *principle* it may be noticed that the one which contains *a* is an adjective,[1] and the other a noun.[1] Of two apparent exceptions to this rule, it should also be noticed that *principal* meaning a school officer or other person is an adjective modifying a noun (*officer* or *party*) understood, and that *principal* as distinguished from *interest* is an adjective modifying *sum* understood.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Right: A moral principle is involved here.
Right: The mint is our principal public building.
Right: The interest is due now; the principal need not be paid until July.
Right: Mr. Vane is the principal of our school.
Right: He is only a tool; he does as his principal directs.
Right: The principals in this little drama were Ned and Harry.
Right: A principle is a general rule or a general truth.

Precede, proceed etc.

94. In *precede, recede, concede, intercede,* and *procedure* the *e* of the second syllable is single. In *proceed, exceed,* and *succeed* the *e* of the second syllable is doubled.

Meaning of *proceed* and *precede*

95. *Proceed* is intransitive;[1] it means *to go forward* (*e.g.*, "Let us proceed"). *Precede* is transitive[1]—must have an object expressed or implied; it means *to go before* (something), as "She preceded me" (*i.e.*, *went before* me), "On Sunday he told me what he had done on the preceding day" (*i.e.*, on the day *going before* the Sunday mentioned).

Receive etc.

96. In case of doubt whether to use the digraph *ei* or the digraph *ie* in words like *receive* and *believe,* the question may be determined by reference to the word *Celia.* If *c* precedes the digraph, *e* follows the *c,* as in *Celia.* Thus: *receive, receipt, conceive, conceit, perceive, deceive.* If *l* precedes the digraph, *i* follows the *l,* as in *Celia.* Thus: *believe, belief, relieve, relief.*

Too

97. *Too* is an adverb;[1] it means *excessively* (*e.g.*, "It is too sour") or *also* (*e.g.*, "I too am coming," "I want some paper—and a stamp too").

To

To is a preposition[1] (*e.g.*, "Come to me," "I don't object to it," "It can't be objected to"), and also the sign of the infinitive[1] (*e.g.*, "Do you want to ride?" "I don't want to").

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Two is a number — the number 2. *Two*

98. In each of the words *accommodate, assassin, embarrass, occurrence, possess, possession* there are two doubled consonants. *Accommodate* etc.

99. It is a misspelling to write a foreign word without the accent marks that properly belong to it, or with accent marks that do not belong to it, or with accent marks misplaced. Note the accent in the following words: *à la carte, rôle, fête, née, chargé d'affaires, confrère, coup d'état, table d'hôte, tête-à-tête, hôtel de ville, vis-à-vis.* Accent marks on foreign words

"Is our τὸ τι ἦν εἶναι a failure, or is Robert Browning played out?"

100. Do not misspell words by the careless omission of the last letters. Some people habitually write "strang" for *strange*, "the" for *they*, "show" for *shown*, "know" for *known*, "larg" for *large*. Omission of final letters

A List of Words that are often Misspelled

101. The following list is composed chiefly of common, everyday words which are often misspelled. With many of these are grouped — for the sake of comparison and distinction — related words, words not often misspelled, and words of different derivation commonly confused with them. The reader is advised to look through the list, to mark words which he finds he has been in the habit of misspelling, and to learn the spelling of those words. By doing this, the reader can eliminate orthographic faults from his writing, to a greater or less degree. But the list is intended to be suggestive rather than complete. Though it may help many readers considerably in improving their spelling, yet in general the best means to this end are (1) constant observation, (2) the persistent A list of words that are often misspelled

habit of referring to a dictionary concerning words about which one is in doubt, and (3) mastery of the general rules of spelling given above.

abbreviation

abhorrence 52

absence
absent

absorb
absorbs 77
absorption. Note the pronunciation.

abundant

abuse
abusing 61

accelerate

accent
accents 73, 77

accept (*receive*) 85
accepts 77
except (*exclude*, *aside from*) 85

access (*admittance*)
excess (*greater amount*)
accessible

accident
accidentally 71

accommodate 98

accompany
accompanying 68
accompaniment 66

accomplish

according
accordingly

account

accumulate

accurate
accurately 63

accuse
accusing 61

accustom
accustoms 77

achieve
achievement 63

acknowledge
acknowledgment (preferable to *acknowledgement*. See 63, end).

acquaint
acquaintance

acquire
acquiring 61

across

actual
actually 70

acute

addition
additionally 71

address

adequate
adequately 63

adjacent

adjoin
adjoins 77

adjust
adjusts 77

admissible
admit
admits 59
admitted 53
admitting 53
admittance 52

advantage
advantageous 62

adventure
adventurous 61

advice (noun) 86
advise (verb) 86
adviser

Æneid

affect (verb, *to influence*) 87
effect (verb, *to produce*) 87
effect (noun, *result*) 87
(There is no noun *affect*).

affection

affliction

afraid

aggravate

aghast

agreeable

aisle (in church)
isle (*island*)

all right (There is no such word as "alright" or "allright.") 83

alley (*small street*) 81
alleys 64

ally (*confederate*)
allies 64

allow
allows 77 *b*

allude
allusion

almost 82

along

already 82, 88
all ready 88

altar (*shrine*)
alter (*change*)

altogether 82

alumna (feminine singular)
alumnæ (feminine plural)
alumnus (masculine singular)
alumni (masculine plural)

always 82

amateur

amicable

amiable

ammonia

among

amount

amuse
amusing 61
amusement 63

analysis
analyze

angel (*celestial being*)
angelic

angle (*corner*)

ankle

announce
announcing 61
announcement 63

annoy
annoys 77 *b*

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annually 70

answer
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apartment

apiece 129

Apollo
Apollinaris

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apparatus

apparent

appeal
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appear
appears 77
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applaud
applause

apply
applies 65
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appoint
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appreciate

approach

approve
approving 61

approximate
approximately 63

argue
arguing 61
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arise
arising 61

arithmetic

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arrange
arranging 61
arrangement 63

arrive
arriving 61
arrival 61

article

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artistically 72

ascend
ascends 77
ascent

assassin
assassinate

assist
assists 77
assistance

associate
association

athlete. Note the pronunciation. Two syllables.
athletic
athletics

attack (present)
attacked (past)

attempt
attempts 73, 77

attendance

autobiography

automobile

autumn
autumnal

auxiliary. Note the pronunciation.
auxiliaries 64

available

avenue

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awfully 70

awkward

bachelor

balance

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Baptist. Note the pronunciation.

baptize

bare
barely 63

bat
batted 53
batting 53
batter 52

beauty
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beautifully 70

become
becoming 61

bed
bedding 53

beg
begged 53
begging 53
beggar 52

begin
beginning 53

behave
behaving 61
behavior

belief 96
believe 96
believing 61

beneficial
beneficially 70

benefit
benefited 58
benefiting 58

berth (*bed*)
birth (*beginning of life*)

besiege
besieging 61

bet
betted (*or* bet) 53
betting 53

bicycle

boarder (*one who boards*)
border (*edge*)

born ("I was born in 1890")
borne ("borne by the wind"; "She has borne a son")

boundary
boundaries 64

bouquet. Note the pronunciation.

brace
bracing 61

bridal (*nuptial*)
bridle (*for a horse*)

Britain
Britannia } (*the country*)
Briton (*a native*)

bud
budding 53

bulletin

buoy
buoyant

bureau

burglar

bury
buries 65
buried 65

bus (*omnibus*)
Buss means *kiss*.

busy
business 66

button

Cæsar

calendar

campaign

canvas (*cloth*)
canvass (*review*)

capital (*city*)
capitol (*building*)

captain

care
caring 61
careful 63
careless 63

career

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carriage 66
(Cf. *marry*, *marri-age*.)
carries 65
carried 65
carrying 68

casual
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casualty. Note the pronunciation.

cease
ceaseless 63
ceasing 61

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cemetery (*graveyard*)
seminary (*school*)

century
centuries 64

ceremony
ceremonies 64

certain
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certainty

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channel 80

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characteristically 72

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chemistry

chief
chieftain

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chimney
chimneys 64

choose, choosing 61 } (present)
chose, chosen } past

chord (*of music*)
cord (*string*)

chorus

Christian

cigarette

Cincinnati

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civil
civilization

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close
closing 61
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closet

clothes (*garments*)
cloths (*kinds of cloth*)

coalesce
coalescing 61

coarse (*not fine*)
course (*path, series*)

coherence
coherent

collar

college

colonel

color

colossal
colossus
Colosseum or Coliseum

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combating 58

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coming 61

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commence
commencing 61
commencement 63

comment

commission
commit
committed 53
committing 53
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common

comparative
comparatively 63

compare
comparing 61

complement (*completing part*)

compliment (*pleasing speech*)
complimentary (*gracious*)

complete
completing 61
completely 63

comrade
comradeship 63

conceit 96
conceive 96
conceiving 61

conciliate

condition

confectionery (*candy*)

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COMPOUND AND DERIVATIVE WORDS

102. Good usage requires that in some compound and derivative words the components shall be separated by the hyphen, and that other shall be written "solid." In writing a word belonging to the first class, one should not, if one cares to write correctly, omit the hyphen; in writing a word of the second class, one should not use the hyphen; and in writing a word of either class, one should not put down the components as separate words. No simple rule can be given for determining whether a compound or derivative word should be hyphened or written solid. One must learn largely from observation and from consulting a dictionary in doubtful cases. The following generalizations may be useful: General rule

Classes of Words to be Hyphened[1]

103. Nouns[2] composed of a noun preceded by *ex* should be hyphened. (Cf. Rule 201.) *Ex-mayor* etc.

Right: ex-president, ex-mayor, ex-senator.

104. Most titles beginning with *vice* may be written hyphened or with their components entirely separated. *Vice-president* etc.

Right:	Right:
vice president	vice-president
vice admiral	vice-admiral
vice chancellor	vice-chancellor
vice consul	vice-consul

But *viceroy* and *vicegerent* should be written solid.

[1] See Exercise 655.

[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Passer-by etc.

105. Compound nouns[1] made up of a noun plus an adverb[1] should be hyphened.

Right: passer-by, passers-by, hanger-on, hangers-on.

Half-mile etc.

106. Compound nouns[1] made up of *half* or *quarter* plus another noun should be hyphened.

Right: half-hour, quarter-inch, half-mile.

But note:

Right: half an hour, half a mile.

Cup-like etc.

107. Extemporized adjectives[1] in *like* should be hyphened.

Right: cup-like, rope-like, moss-like.

108. But adjectives of this formation that are in common use should be written solid.

Right: childlike, godlike, businesslike, ladylike.

Noun plus adjective

109. Most adjectives[1] made up of a noun[1] plus an adjective should be hyphened.

Right: dirt-cheap, coal-black, sea-green, sky-blue, blood-red, honey-sweet, fire-proof, water-tight, air-tight, crystal-clear, wine-dark.

Bright-eyed etc.

110. Most adjectives[1] made up of an adjective plus a noun[1] plus *d* or *ed* should be hyphened.

Right: bright-eyed, dark-haired, red-headed, near-sighted, left-handed, strong-minded, sweet-voiced, dark-complexioned, silver-tongued, old-fashioned, six-tined, three-handled.

Eagle-eyed etc.

111. Most adjectives[1] made up of a noun[1] plus a noun plus *d* or *ed* should be hyphened.

Right: eagle-eyed, bullet-headed, bull-necked, bow-legged, cross-eyed, pig-headed, leather-lunged.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

112. Adjectives[1] composed of a monosyllabic[1] adverb[1] plus a present participle[1] should be hyphened. *Far-reaching* etc.

Right: far-reaching, low-lying, high-soaring, well-meaning, ill-smelling, loud-sounding.

13. Adverbs in *ly* are not usually joined to following participles.

Right: *softly falling* feet, *steadily increasing* cold.
But see Rule 124.

114. An expression made up of a passive participle[1] preceded by a monosyllabic[1] adverb[1] or by *before* or *above* should be hyphened *when used attributively*.[1] *Well-educated*, etc. if attributive

Right: a *close-hauled* ship, a *well-educated* man, a *so-called* reform, the *above-mentioned* rule, a *far-fetched* allusion, a *much-powdered* lady.

15. But such an expression should not be hyphened when used otherwise than attributively. Not otherwise

Right: an *ill-arranged* library. [Attributive.]
Right: The library is *ill arranged*. [Predicate adjective.[1]]
Right: The library, *ill arranged* and dusty, was no pleasure to me. [Appositive adjective.[1]]

116. Expressions composed of a passive participle[1] plus an adverb[1] should be hyphened *when used attributively*,[1] but not otherwise. *Worn-out* etc. if attributive

Right: a *worn-out* coat. [Attributive.]
Right: He *has worn out* his coat. [Finite[1] verb.]
Right: The coat is *worn out*. [Predicate[1] adjective.]
Right: The coat, *worn out* as it is, is unfit to wear. [Appositive[1] adjective.]
Right: a *trumped-up* charge, a *burnt-out* fire. [Attributive.]

117. An expression composed of a numeral plus a noun should be hyphened when used attributively.[1] *Three-inch* etc. if attributive

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Right: a *three-inch* screw, two *four-cylinder* engines, a *two-thirds* majority, an *eight-oar* boat, a *seven-eighths inch* board, a *two-hundred-horse-power* engine, a *five hundred-page* book, a *seven-dollar* bathing suit.

Self-possessed etc.

118. Expressions consisting of a participle[1] preceded by a substantive[1] denoting an agent or an agency or means should be hyphenated. Thus:

Agent

self-possessed	God-given
self-confessed	heaven-sent
self-appointed	a king-ridden nation
self-constituted	a boss-ruled city
worm-eaten	a hen-pecked husband

Agency or means

water-soaked	crime-infested
iron-clad	ink-stained
tapestry-covered	tear-stained
mud-encrusted	blood-stained
silver-plated	blood-bought
fur-lined	a blood-rusted key
travel-stained	"The iron-bound bucket,
grief-stricken	the moss-covered bucket"

Noun, adjective, participle, or gerund preceded by object

119. Expressions consisting of a noun,[1] an adjective,[1] a participle,[1] or a gerund[1] preceded by the name of an object acted upon or concerned should usually be hyphenated. Thus:

Noun preceded by name of object acted on

tax-collector	hay-tedder
woman-hater	pen-filler
piano-tuner	meat-chopper
football-player	germ-destroyer
man-eater	life-preserver
lion-tamer	self-respect
snake-charmer	self-control
dog-catcher	self-destruction
horse-tamer	self-slaughter
scissors-grinder	self-effacement
self-murderer	self-restraint
self-destroyer	self-exaltation
Zeus, the cloud-compeller	sentence-structure

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Noun preceded by name of object concerned

self-conceit	self-importance
self-interest	self-satisfaction

Adjective preceded by name of object concerned

self-important	heart-sick
blood-guilty	music-mad

Participle preceded by object

labor-saving	a hope-destroying event
fur-bearing	a germ-destroying drug
self-denying	a soul-stirring symphony
heart-rending	a man-eating tiger

Gerund preceded by object

letter-writing	money-getting
butter-making	duck-hunting
bull-baiting	trout-fishing

120. Most compound nouns[1] and adjectives[1] made up of more than two components should be hyphenated. More than two components

Right: merry-go-round, devil-may-care, man-of-war, cat-o'-nine-tails, jack-o'-lanterns, will-o'-the-wisp, son-in-law, well-to-do, commander-in-chief, rough-and-tumble, catch-as-catch-can, happy-go-lucky.

Note that *nevertheless*, *inasmuch*, *nowadays*, *notwithstanding* are not nouns or adjectives. (See Rule 129.)

121. Adverbs[1] composed of *fashion* preceded by a noun[1] or an adjective[1] should be hyphenated. Adverbs in *fashion*

Right: He played the fiddle *banjo-fashion*. It was cooked *Spanish-fashion*.

122. The adverbs *to-day*, *to-night*, and *to-morrow* should be hyphenated. *To-day*, *to-night*, *to-morrow*

123. *Good-by* (or *good-bye*) should be hyphenated, whether used as an interjection or as a noun. *Good-by*

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Singly construed phrases

124. A group of words which is to be construed as a single part of speech[1] should be hyphened when its context is such that, if the words were construed separately, the sense might not be immediately clear. Thus:

Words construed separately	*Whole group construed as a single part of speech*
It is a matter of fact	A matter-of-fact statement
It is made of badger hair	A badger-hair brush
We met face to face and spoke heart to heart	We had a face-to-face meeting and a heart-to-heart talk
Hold out your right hand	He is my right-hand man
We conversed after dinner	He made an after-dinner speech
I observe much blood and thunder in the play	A blood-and-thunder play
An electric light	Electric-light wires
The assembly room	The assembly-room windows
A business college	Business-college graduates
A high school	A high-school graduate
There is a short circuit here	A loose wire will short-circuit the current
He confessed out and out	An out-and-out confession
Here is a loose leaf in the book	A loose-leaf ledger
Send me a leg of mutton	A leg-of-mutton sail
He would be rich if he worked	A would-be artist
Tommy, make room for your uncle	"While, treading down rose and ranunculus, You *Tommy-make-room-for-your-uncle* us." — BROWNING.
It is heavier than air	He used a heavier-than-air machine
It measures two by four	I want three two-by-fours
Lean to the left a little	The house consists of a main part and a lean-to
We live from hand to mouth	It is a hand-to-mouth life
He mounted the horse on the off side	O'Malley made an off-side play
The marriage was much talked of	A much-talked-of marriage

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

The baby is a month old	A month-old baby
I like black raspberries	A black-raspberry pie
Do you want an alternating current or a continuous current?	I think alternating-current electricity is superior to continuous-current electricity
We walked all round the town	He is an all-round man
He has a straight back, you observe	I like a straight-back chair
It is provided with a knob and tube	A knob-and-tube system is best for this purpose
Your kindness is never to be forgotten	You have done me a never-to-be-forgotten favor

Words to be Written Solid [1]

Nouns to be written solid

125. Most compound and derivative nouns [2] other than those specified in Rules 103–106, 119, and 120 should be written solid — not hyphened, and not written with their components entirely separate. Thus:

Right:	Right:
childhood	income
manhood	inlet
womanhood	intake
brotherhood	overcoat
fellowship	overshoe
professorship	overflow
clerkship	undertow
goodness	undergrowth
blindness	underbrush
kindness	undertaking
outburst	offspring
outcast	offset
outbreak	offshoot
outlet	upstart
outpost	upbringing
outcome	uplift
	upshot

[1] See Exercises 666–675.

[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Nouns to be written solid

bystander
byway
byword

misspelling
misstep
misfortune
misadventure
misdemeanor

midnight
midday
midsummer
midwinter
midshipman

autobiography
autograph
automobile
autocrat

anteroom
antechamber

archbishop
archangel

railroad
railway

surname
nickname

forenoon
afternoon

grandfather
grandmother
forefather

stairway
roadway
leeway
runway

twilight
daylight
sunlight
moonlight
lamplight

jackknife
penknife

sailboat
iceboat
rowboat
whaleboat
lifeboat
surfboat
steamboat

broomstick
fiddlestick
singlestick
But *walking stick*

homestead
bedstead
farmstead
roadstead
grindstone
washtub
bootjack
wardrobe
handkerchief
nightgown
nightshirt
fireplace
doorstep
barnyard
haymow
bulldog
cockfight
cocktail
lambkin
pickpocket
spendthrift
cutthroat
witchcraft
farewell
welfare
welcome
haphazard
nonsense

postscript
pronoun
semicolon
superscription
enterprise
antidote

126. The following pronouns should be written solid — not hyphened, and not written with their components entirely separate: Pronouns to be written solid

Right:	Right:	Right:
myself	whatever	anything
thyself	whatsoever	something
himself	whichever	nothing
herself	whichsoever	anybody, everybody, somebody, nobody } Cf. 132.
itself	whoever	
ourselves	whosoever	
yourself	whomever	
yourselves	whomsoever	
themselves		
oneself		

127. Most compound and derivative adjectives[1] not belonging to the classes mentioned in Rules 109–119 should be written solid — not hyphened, and not written with their components entirely separate. Thus: Adjectives to be written solid

Right:	Right:
upward	fearless
downward	hopeless
backward	bloodless
forward	soulless
homeward	heartless
	helpless
upright	
downright	lonesome
	gruesome
beforehand	winsome
behindhand	loathsome
twofold	steadfast
threefold	extraordinary
manifold	supernatural

128. Almost all compound and derivative verbs[1] should be written solid — not hyphened, and not written with their components entirely separate. Thus: Verbs to be written solid

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Verbs to be written solid

Right:	Right:
counterbalance	readmit
forebode	reclaim
foreordain	recover
foresee	transplant
gainsay	transport
intercede	undermine
interest	undersell
miscalculate	underestimate
misspell	undervalue
outbid	upbear
outdo	upbraid
outplay	upheave
outstrip	uphold
overcome	uplift
overjoy	withdraw
overleap	withhold
overthrow	withstand

Adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions to be written solid

129. The following adverbs,[1] prepositions,[1] and conjunctions[1] should be written solid — not hyphened, and not written with their components entirely separate:

Right:	Right:
together	likewise
without	otherwise
within	apiece
instead	almost
whenever	already
wherever	although
however	altogether
nevertheless	always
inasmuch	throughout
outside	somewhat
inside	sometimes
perhaps	somehow
	moreover

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

thereafter
thereby
therefor. See p. 60.
therein
thereof
thereon
thereupon
therewith

furthermore

upward
downward
backward
forward

indoors
outdoors

upstairs
downstairs

upright
downright

beforehand
behindhand

overhead

underneath

therefore. See p. 60.

whereabouts
whereas
whereby
whereof
wherein
whereupon

notwithstanding

nowadays

Expressions to be Written as Separate Words[1]

Incorrect compounding

130. Expressions which good usage treats as groups of separate words — not as compound words — should not be hyphened or written solid. What expressions belong to this class one must learn largely by observation and by consulting a dictionary in doubtful cases.

Words to be written separately

131. Note that the following expressions should be written with their components entirely separated — not combined into compound words either by being hyphened or by being written solid:

all ready
all right
any day
any time
by and by
by the bye
by the way
each other
en route
every day
every time
ex officio
in fact
in order
in spite
near by
(on the) other hand
per cent (but *percentage*)
pro tempore
some day
some way

[1] See Exercises 666–668, 673, 674.

Anybody, any one etc.

132. As was stated in Rule 126, indefinite pronouns ending in *body* should be written solid. But pronominal expressions ending in *one* should not be written solid.

Right:	Right:
anybody	any one
everybody	every one
somebody	some one
nobody	no one

A while and *awhile*

133. *A while* should be written as two separate words when the *while* is used as a noun.[1] But when *awhile* is used as an adverb[1] meaning DURING *a short time*, it should be written solid.

Right: For a while all was well. ["While" is a noun, object of the preposition "for."]
Right: He came a while ago. ["While" is a noun, adverbial modifier of "ago," just as in "He walked a mile farther" "mile" is a noun, adverbial modifier of "farther."]
Right: He died a while before the war. ["While" is a noun, adverbial modifier of "before the war." Compare "He died a short *time* before the war," "He died a long *way* from home."]
Right: Come in and rest awhile [*i.e.*, *during a short time*].

Some time and *sometime*

134. *Some time* should be written as two separate words when the *time* is a noun.[1] But *sometime*, an adverb[1] meaning AT *some time*, should be written solid.

Right: For some time all was well.
Right: He went some time ago.
Right: Sometime I am going abroad.

Any way and *anyway*

135. *Any way* should be written as two separate words when the *way* is a noun.[1] But *anyway*, an adverb[1] meaning IN *any way* or *in any case*, should be written solid.

Right: He will not yield in any way. ["Way" is a noun, object of "in."]
Right: Perhaps he objects, but I am going anyway.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

The Hyphen with Numerals[1]

136. Cardinal[2] numbers composed of *twenty, thirty, forty, fifty, sixty, seventy, eighty,* or *ninety* followed by *one, two, three, four, five, six, seven, eight,* or *nine* should be hyphened whether used alone or as parts of larger numbers. *Twenty-one etc.*

Right: twenty-one, eighty-six, fifty-three, ninety-four, one hundred and thirty-six, twenty-eight thousand.

137. No other component terms of a cardinal number should be joined by a hyphen, except when the number is joined to a noun to form an attributive adjective expression (cf. Rule 117). *One hundred etc.*

Right: one hundred, two hundred and six, one thousand and twenty-five.

But note:

Right: a two-hundred-horse-power engine, a two-hundred-mile journey. [117.]

138. All the words in ordinal[2] numbers should be joined by hyphens. **Ordinal numbers**

Right: twenty-seventh, one-hundred-and-sixth, "the thousand-and-second tale of Scheherazade."

139. In fractional numbers the numerator should not be joined to the denominator by a hyphen except when the fraction is used as an attributive adjective or is joined to a noun to form an attributive adjective expression (see Rule 117). **Fractions**

Right: *three fourths* of an inch, *two thirds* of a mile.

But note:

Right: a *two-thirds* majority, a *three-quarter-inch* augur. [117.]

[1] See Exercises 675, 677.

[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

ABBREVIATIONS[1]

Abbreviations inelegant in general

140. Abbreviations are, as a rule, in bad taste in compositions written in connected sentences. In such compositions — including letters — it is best to use no abbreviations except those which are employed, not merely by newspapers and writers of commonplace business letters, but by recognized masters of English prose.

BAD: Last summer I worked for the Chandler Mfg. Co. in Casey, Ill. Casey is on the C. and E. I. R.R.

Right: Last summer I worked for the Chandler Manufacturing Company in Casey, Illinois. Casey is on the Chicago and Eastern Illinois Railroad.

IMPROPER superscription on an envelope:

Thos. Howe
c/o Capt. Wm. Fiske
Wabasha
Minn.

Right:

Mr. Thomas Howe
In care of Captain William Fiske
Wabasha
Minnesota

BAD:

Rev. Chas. Drayton
$ 463 9th st.
Bridgeport
Ct.

Right:

The Reverend Charles Drayton
463 Ninth Street
Bridgeport
Connecticut

[1] See Exercise 676.

BAD:

20 High St.
Columbus, O.
Oct. 3, '08.

D. C. Heath & Co.
Chicago, Ill.

Gents:

Yours of Sept. 30 rec'd and in reply would say I am at present out of mdse. desired, but will ship same as soon as possible.

Y'rs resp'y,
H. T. Hibbs.

Right:

20 High Street, Columbus, Ohio,
October 3, 1908.

Messrs. D. C. Heath and Company,
Chicago, Illinois.

Gentlemen:

I have received your letter of September 30. In reply, allow me to say that I have not in stock at present the merchandise you desire, but will send it as soon as possible.

Yours respectfully,
H. T. Hibbs.

141. Compositions written in connected sentences do not include such works as dictionaries, statistical tables, medical prescriptions, carpenters' specifications, and mercantile bills. In such compositions, of course, any abbreviation that is clear is admissible. In a grocer's bill it is proper to write: Statistics, grocers' bills etc.

Mr. Chas. Smith in account with
Wm. Jones
6231 Wentworth Ave., Chicago, Ill.

Sept. 2.	To 3 lbs. butter @ 23 cts.	.69

But it would be incongruous to write in a connected composition:

"One night early in Sept. Wm. and I met Chas. walking disconsolately along Wentworth Ave. It seemed to me that he must have lost 20 lbs. since I had last seen him in Aurora, Ill. With a haggard look he told us that wheat was selling @ 97 cts. per bu. and that he was ruined."

Exceptions

142. By way of exception to Rule 140, the abbreviations noted in the following sections are admissible in connected compositions. Let it be observed that most of these abbreviations are proper only when used in certain particular combinations or in certain particular contexts. For example:

Right in some places, wrong in others

Right: I came at ten p.m.
VULGAR: I came this p.m.

Right: He lives in room No. 12.
BAD: Let me know the No. of your room.

Right: My dear Dr. Hart.
VULGAR: My dear Dr.

Right, in a footnote: Cf. vol. I, chap. 14, pp. 71–80.
WRONG, in the text: I am not speaking at random, gentlemen. You can find the statements I have quoted in the fourteenth chap. of the first vol. And if you do turn to that vol. and chap. to verify my words, read especially p. 71 and the following pp.

Proper in the text:

143. The following abbreviations may be incorporated in sentences in the main body of a composition:

I.e.

(*a*) **I.e.**, for the Latin *id est*, meaning *that is*. This expression denotes that what follows it is equivalent to what precedes. It should not be used when what follows is not equivalent to what precedes.

WRONG: I like to read the Bible, *i.e.*, some of the stories in the Old Testament. ["Some of the stories in the Old Testament" is not equivalent to "the Bible."]
Right: I like some parts of the Bible — *i.e.*, the stories in the Old Testament. [386.]
Right: The act is treated as a capital crime — *i.e.*, a crime punishable by death. ["A crime punishable by death" is equivalent to "a capital crime."]
Right: He had committed lese-majesty — *i.e.*, had given an affront to the Emperor. ["Had . . . Emperor" is equivalent to "had . . . majesty."]

The expression *i.e.* is appropriate to a scientific or matter-of-fact context; it is incongruous in an artistic context.

BAD: He did what one would expect of so chivalrous and noble a character; *i.e.*, he bent over and kissed her hand.

Right: He did what one would expect of so chivalrous and noble a character; he bent over and kissed her hand.

NOTE. — The expression *i.e.* cannot properly be used wherever *that is* is used; for *that is* may be used colloquially to introduce a modification (*e.g.*, "I was there the whole day — that is, nearly the whole day"), and in such a case *i.e.* is wrong.

(*b*) **E.g.**, for the Latin *exempli gratia*, meaning *for the sake of example*, or *for example*. *E.g.*

Right: This organ is particularly well developed in some of the tropical reptiles — *e.g.*, the boa and the cobra. [386.]

The expression *e.g.* is appropriate only in a scientific or matter-of-fact context.

INCONGRUOUS: Dearest, send me something that has been near you; *e.g.*, a glove or a handkerchief.

Right: Dearest, send me something that has been near you — a glove or a handkerchief. [307.]

(*c*) **Q.v.**, for the Latin *quod vide*, meaning *which* (relative pronoun) *see* (imperative). *Q.v.*

Right: Under *Preposition* (*q.v.*) you will find more information.

(*d*) **Viz.**, for the Latin *videlicet*, meaning *namely*. (The *z* represents an ancient symbol used to denote the omission of letters; compare *oz.* for *ounce*.) *Viz.*

Right: Two effects are to be noted: *viz.*, the quick ebullition, and the precipitation of the lavender crystals. [386.]

The expression *viz.* is appropriate only in a scientific or matter-of-fact context.

INCONGRUOUS: And still the same image floated before his eyes, — *viz.*, her hair glistening like spun gold in the waning sunlight.

Right: And still the same image floated before his eyes —her hair glistening like spun gold in the waning sunlight. [377.]

Sc. (*e*) **Sc.** for the Latin *scilicet*, meaning *namely* or (*such and such a thing*) *being understood.* The use of this expression is confined to very technical — particularly grammatical — works.

Right: Thus Livy says "ad Jovis" (*sc.* aedem), meaning "near Jove's temple."

Etc. (*f*) **Etc.**, for the Latin *et cetera*, meaning *and the others*, or *and so forth.* The use of *etc.* is incongruous in a context intended to be artistic. Use a definite term in place of *etc.* or else simply omit *etc.*

WRONG: She was more beautiful, witty, virtuous, etc., than any other lady.
Right: She was more beautiful, witty, virtuous, and loyal than any other lady.
Right: She was more beautiful, witty, and virtuous than any other lady.

In any context, avoid the vague use of *etc.;* use it only to dispense with useless repetition or to represent terms that are entirely obvious.

NOTE. — *Etc.* should not be preceded by *and*, because *and* is included in its meaning.

WRONG: Pillows, flags, posters, and etc.
Right: Pillows, flags, posters, etc.

MS. (*g*) **MS.**, for *manuscript;* plural **MSS.** These abbreviations are not so common in present-day usage as they were in the time of Poe.

B.C. (*h*) **B.C.**, for *before Christ.* This abbreviation may be used only in defining a year or a century named immediately before; see Rule 142.

Right: He died in 60 B.C.
Right: He lived in the fifth century B.C.

WRONG : Homer lived a long time B.C. [142]
Right : Homer lived a long time before Christ.

(*i*) **A.D.**, for the Latin *anno domini*, meaning *in the year of the Lord.* This abbreviation may be used only in defining a year — not a century. It should precede the date and should not be preceded by a preposition, because *in* is included in its meaning. *A.D.*

Right : Arminius died A.D. 21.
WRONG : The sixth century A.D.
Right : The sixth century after Christ, or The sixth century of the Christian era.

(*j*) **A.M.**, for the Latin *ante meridiem*, meaning *before midday;* **P.M.**, for *post meridiem*, meaning *after midday.* These abbreviations may be used only after a number indicating an hour; see Rule 142. They are incongruous except in a matter-of-fact context. *A.M., P.M.*

Right : The train left at ten p.m.
INCONGRUOUS : At 7 p.m. Hilda took her place at the gate, her heart beating with ecstatic eagerness.
Right : At seven o'clock that evening Hilda took her place at the gate, her heart beating with ecstatic eagerness.

(*k*) **No.**, for the Italian or French *numero*, meaning *number;* plural **Nos.** These abbreviations are proper only when prefixed to a number; see Rule 142. *No.*

144. The following abbreviations may not be incorporated in sentences; they may be used only as headings: Proper only as headings:

(*a*) **P.S.**, for the Latin *post scriptum*, meaning *written afterward.* *P.S.*

(*b*) **N.B.**, for the Latin *nota bene*, meaning *note well.* *N.B.*

145. The following abbreviations may not be incorporated in sentences in the main body of a composition; they may be used only in footnotes and parenthetic citations: Proper only in footnotes etc.:

Cf. (*a*) **Cf.**, for the Latin *confer*, meaning *compare.*

Right: Cf. Browning's *Saul*. [That is, compare Browning's *Saul* with something said here.]

Ff. (*b*) **Ff.**, for *and the following* (the doubled *f* indicating a plural; see Rule 492).

Right: See pages 97 ff. [That is, see page 97 and the following pages.]
Right: Cf. *Saul*, lines 26 ff.

Et seq. (*c*) **Et seq.**, or **sq.**, or **sqq.**, for the Latin *et sequentia* or *et sequentes*, meaning *and the following.*

Right: See also Gibbon's *Rome*, vol. I, pp. 290 *et seq.*

Ibid. (*d*) **Ibid.**, for the Latin *ibidem*, meaning *in the same place* — that is, *in the book or chapter or page last cited.*

Id. (*e*) **Id.**, for the Latin *idem.*, meaning *the same* — that is, *the writer or the work last cited.*

Vol. (*f*) **Vol.**, for *volume.*

Ch. (*g*) **Chap.** or **ch.**, for *chapter.*

P., pp. (*h*) **P.**, for *page;* plural **pp.** (See Rule 492.)

L., ll. (*i*) **L.**, for *line;* plural **ll.** (See Rule 492.)

The meanings of other abbreviations of all kinds can be found in the back part of any good dictionary.

Abbreviation of titles

146. Abbreviation of titles is, in general, inelegant and objectionable. Spell out *Professor, President, Captain, General, Colonel, Reverend,* etc. **147.** Some abbreviations for titles are, however, always proper — namely, (1) *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Messrs.*, and *Dr.*, when prefixed to names — not otherwise (see Rule 142); (2) *Esq.*, and the initial abbreviations *D.D.*, *Ph.D.*, *F.R.S.*, *R.A.*, etc., when suffixed to names — not otherwise (see Rule 142).

Proper only with names

Right: The chair is held by Alfred Feeder, B.A.
BAD: I shall get my B.A. next year.

Right: I shall get my bachelor's degree next year.
BAD: He is a Ph.D. from Jena.
Right: He is a doctor of philosophy from Jena.

148. The title *Esq.* is a proper substitute for *Mr.* When *Esq.* follows a name, no title should precede the name. Use of the title *Esq.*

WRONG: Mr. Ralph Williams Esq.
Right: Ralph Williams, Esq.

THE REPRESENTATION OF NUMBERS[1]

Dates, folios etc., and house numbers

149. Do not spell out (1) cardinal[2] numbers designating dates, (2) cardinal numbers designating the pages or divisions (*i.e.*, parts, chapters, paragraphs, sections, rules, etc.) of a book or a document, or (3) the street numbers of houses.

WRONG: On October thirteen, eighteen hundred and eighty-one, I was born at three hundred and sixty-two Adams Street. See page nine hundred and sixteen of our family Bible.
Right: On October 13, 1881, I was born at 362 Adams Street. See page 916 of our family Bible.

Omission of *th, st* etc.

150. The number of a day following the name of a month should usually not be followed by *th, st, nd, d,* or *rd.*

Right: The convention lasted from October 26 to November 3.

151. Ordinal[2] numbers designating days of a month may be either spelled out or represented by figures.

Right: The thirteenth of May fell on Friday.
Right: The 13th of May fell on Friday.

Ordinal numbers designating pages or divisions of a book or document are governed by Rules 164–167.

Street numbers

152. In connected discourse, in an address in a letter, and on an envelope, a street number not larger than one hundred should be spelled out.

[1] See Exercise 677.
[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Right: I live on Thirty-sixth Street. [191, 200.]
Right: Professor James Ludington
541 West Sixty-second Street
New York City
New York

153. In designating a sum of United States money in connected discourse, apply the following rules (154–160): Sums of money:

154. Do not use the sign $ for sums less than one dollar. The sign $ improper for sums less than a dollar

WRONG: It costs $0.20.
Right: It costs twenty cents.

155. Do not write .00. .00 never to be used

WRONG: He subscribed $342.00 to the fund.
Right: He subscribed $342 to the fund.

156. For a sum amounting to a number of dollars and a number of cents, use the sign $ and figures ordinarily. (But see Rule 160.) Fractional sums

Right: It costs $3.18.

157. If several sums are mentioned within a short space, use figures ordinarily for all, putting the sign $ before all numbers representing dollars. (But see Rule 160.). Even sums: Frequent

Right: My room costs $3 a week and my board $4.50; my contribution to the church is 30 cents; my incidental expenses range from $9.35 to $12.50 a month.

158. In case of an isolated mention of a sum in cents, spell out the number. Isolated: A sum in cents

Right: The price is ninety cents.

159. In case of an isolated mention of a sum in dollars without a fraction, spell out a number expressed in one or two words, such as *three, sixteen, two hundred, six thousand, one million;* for other numbers, such as A sum in dollars

102, 350, 1130, 1,500,000, use the sign $ and figures, as a rule.

Right: He contributed twenty thousand dollars.
Right: It sold for eighteen hundred dollars.
Right: His fortune amounts to $72,500.

Sum standing first in sentence

160. But a sum standing first in a sentence which follows a terminal period,[1] or begins a composition or a direct quotation,[2] should in no case be represented by figures. (Cf. Rule 167.)

BAD: $36.50 was the price.
Right: Thirty-six dollars and fifty cents was the price.

Age

161. In connected discourse, a number designating the age of a person or thing should be spelled out, unless such numbers occur frequently within a short space.

Right: He is sixty years old.
Right: When I was ten years old, I enjoyed reading *The Origin of Species*.

Hours of the day

162. In connected discourse, a number designating an hour of the day should be spelled out, unless such numbers occur frequently within a short space.

Right: Meet me at three o'clock.
Right: I think it was about twenty minutes after six when she emitted that prodigious meow.

Ten-thirty etc.

163. Numbers of the form *ten-thirty*, *eleven-fifteen*, etc., occurring in connected discourse are governed by Rule 162. These forms are incongruous in any but a very matter-of-fact context. (Cf. Rule 143 *j*.)

BAD: On the next day, about 12:30, I saw, with secret misgivings, the marriage of the lovely Muriel Fitzduncan to Percival Castorbridge.

[1] That is, a period marking the close of a sentence, as distinguished from one designating an abbreviation.
[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Right: On the next day, about half after twelve, I saw, with secret misgivings, the marriage of the lovely Muriel Fitzduncan to Percival Castorbridge.

164. In representing, in connected discourse, numbers other than those treated above, apply the following rules (165–167). **165.** In case several numbers are mentioned in a short space, use figures for all, as a rule. See for example the text of Rules 565–570, where numbers occur frequently, and representation of them by words would inconvenience the reader. **166.** If the numbers to be represented are not frequent, spell out numbers that may be expressed in one or two words, such as *eighteen, ninety-seven, two hundred, eighteen hundred, twenty thousand, one million, fifty million;* as a rule, use figures for those that require three or more words, such as 108, 233, 1250, 18,231, 1,500,230.

Numbers in general: Frequent Not frequent

WRONG: The college is 25 miles from Columbus and has 900 students.
Right: The college is twenty-five miles from Columbus and has nine hundred students. [136, 137.]
WRONG: In this city there are four hundred and thirty-four saloons to three hundred and eighty-five thousand, one hundred and ninety-two people.
Right: In this city there are 434 saloons to 385,192 people.

167. But a number standing first in a sentence which follows a terminal period,[1] or begins a composition or a direct quotation,[2] should in every case be spelled out. (Cf. Rule 160.)

Numbers beginning a sentence

BAD: The amount is very great, and the force was large. 31,200 prisoners have been paroled.
Right: The amount is very great, and the force was large. Thirty-one thousand, two hundred prisoners have been paroled. [136, 137.]

[1] See footnote 1, p. 86.
[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Parenthetic repetition of numbers

168. A sum of money or a number that is spelled out should not be repeated in parenthesized figures, except in legal or commercial letters and instruments.

ABSURD: A little girl, apparently about twelve (12) years old, sat three (3) seats ahead of me, crying. "Oh dear!" I heard her moan. "My two (2) brothers are dead."
Right: A little girl, apparently about twelve years old, sat three seats ahead of me, crying. "Oh dear!" I heard her moan. "My two brothers are dead."

169. When such repetition is made, (*a*) a parenthesized sum should stand at the end of the expression that it repeats, not elsewhere; and (*b*) a parenthesized number should stand immediately after the number that it repeats, not elsewhere.

WRONG: I enclose ($10) ten dollars. [*a*]
WRONG: I enclose ten ($10) dollars. [*b*]
Right: I enclose ten dollars ($10). [*a*]
Right: I enclose ten (10) dollars. [*b*]

Series represented by terminals

170. A series of numbers or dates may be represented by the terminal members with a dash between them.

Right: Read pages 21–36, inclusive.
Right: The years 1840–1860 were for him a time of incessant struggle.

171. But an expression consisting of two terminal numbers or dates with a dash between should not be preceded by a singular noun, or by the preposition *from*; if the word *from* is used, the word *to* must also be used.

BAD: From page 2–6 the author discusses crawfish.
Right: From page 2 to page 6 the author discusses crawfish.
Right: On pages 2–6 the author discusses crawfish.
BAD: The Revolution took place in the year 1775–1783.
Right: The Revolution took place in the years 1775–1783.

172. Nor should such an expression be used otherwise than to designate a series. Series represented by terminals

ABSURD: Shakespeare was born 1564–1616.
Right: Shakespeare was born in 1564 and died in 1616.
Right: The period of Shakespeare's life, 1564–1616, was rich in interesting events.

SYLLABICATION[1]

Division between syllables

173. When a word is divided at the end of a line, the separation should be made between syllables, not elsewhere.

There is no uniform principle for determining just what are the several syllables of any given word; one must rely largely on learning, by observation and by reference to dictionaries, what is the correct syllabication in individual cases. Nevertheless, a good many errors may be avoided by the observance of the following simple rules:

Follow pronunciation

174. Do not set apart from each other combinations of letters the separate pronunciation of which is impossible or unnatural.

(*a*) **WRONG**: Exc-ursion; go-ndola; illustr-ate; instr-uction; pun-ctuation.
Right: Ex-cursion; gon-dola; illus-trate; in-struction; punc-tuation.

(*b*) **WRONG**: Prostr-ate; pri-nciple; abs-urd; fini-shing; sugge-stion.
Right: Pros-trate; prin-ciple; ab-surd; finish-ing; sugges-tion.

(*c*) **WRONG**: Nat-ion; conclus-ion; invent-ion; introd-uction; abbr-eviat-ion.
Right: Na-tion; conclu-sion; inven-tion; intro-duction; ab-brevia-tion.

(*d*) **WRONG**: Diffic-ult; tob-acco; exc-ept; univ-ersity; dislo-dgment.
Right: Diffi-cult; to-bacco; ex-cept; uni-versity; dislodg-ment.

[1] See Exercise 678.

175. As a rule, divide between a prefix and the letter following it. Prefixes

WRONG: Bet-ween; pref-ix; antec-edent; conf-ine; del-ight.
Right: Be-tween; pre-fix; ante-cedent; con-fine; de-light.

176. As a rule, divide between a suffix and the letter preceding it. Divide, *e.g.*, before *-ing*, *-ly*, *-ment*, *-ed* (when it is pronounced as a separate syllable, as in *delight-ed*), *-ish*, *-able*, *-er*, *-est*. Suffixes

Right: Lov-ing; love-ly; judg-ment; invit-ed; Jew-ish; punish-able; strong-er; strong-est.
BAD: star-ted; fee-ding.
Right: start-ed; feed-ing.

177. As a rule, when a consonant is doubled, divide between the two letters. This rule often takes precedence of Rule 176 above. Doubled consonants

Right: rub-ber; ab-breviation; oc-casion; ad-dition; af-finity; Rus-sian; expres-sion; omis-sion; commit-tee; ex-cel-lent; stop-ping; drop-ping; ship-ping; equip-ping.

178. Never divide in the midst of *th* pronounced as in *the* or *thin*; *sh* as in *push*; *ph* as in *phonograph*; *ng* as in *sing*; *gn* as in *sign*; *tch* as in *fetch*; and *gh* pronounced as in *rough*, or silent. Never divide *ck* except in accordance with Rule 179 below. Digraphs *th*, *ch*, *sh* etc.

WRONG: cat-holic; ras-hness; disc-harge; diap-hragm; gin-gham.
Right: cath-olic; rash-ness; dis-charge; dia-phragm; ging-ham.
WRONG: consig-nment; wat-ching; doug-hty.
Right: consign-ment; watch-ing; dough-ty.

The divisions *post-humous*, *dis-habille*, *Lap-ham*, *nightin-gale*, *distin-guish*, *sin-gle*, *sig-nature*, and *Leg-horn*, form no exceptions to the foregoing rule, for in

them *th*, *sh*, etc. are pronounced each as two distinct sounds.

Final *le*

179. In dividing words like *edible*, *possible*, *bridle*, *trifle*, *beagle*, *crackle*, *twinkle*, *staple*, *entitle*, do not set *le* apart by itself; always place with it the preceding consonant.

Right: edi-ble; possi-ble; bri-dle; tri-fle; bea-gle; crac-kle; etc.

Monosyllables

180. A monosyllable,[1] used either separately or as a part of a compound word, should never be divided at the end of a line.

WRONG: tho-ugh; thing-s; dropp-ed; stop-ped; stea-mboat; hou-sekeeper.
Right: though; things; dropped; stopped; steam-boat; house-keeper.

181. A mónosyllabic[1] word, in an inflectional[1] form that has an extra syllable, may of course be divided; but the division should never be made within the stem[1] of the word. (Cf. Rule 176.)

BAD: star-ted; buil-ding; hee-ded.
Right: start-ed; build-ing; heed-ed.

Syllables of one letter

182. A syllable of one letter should not be divided from the rest of the word.

BAD: a-lone; a-mong; man-y.
Right: alone; among; many.

Position of the hyphen

183. When a word is divided at the end of a line, the hyphen should be placed after the first element of the word, and there only; a hyphen should never be placed at the beginning of a line.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

CAPITALS[1]

184. Proper nouns[2] in general, including the names of the days of the week and the names of the months, should be capitalized. But note: **185.** The words *spring*, *summer*, *midsummer*, *autumn*, *fall*, *winter*, and *mid-winter* should not be capitalized except when personified.

Proper nouns

Days and months

Seasons

186. (*a*) Names of particular associations of people — political, religious, social, scientific, commercial, and other — should be capitalized.

Societies etc.

> Right: The Republican Party. The Presbyterian Church. The Baker's Dozen. The Royal Geographical Society. The Union Central Life Insurance Company. The Standard Oil Company. The Amalgamated Federation of Sausage-makers.

(*b*) Nouns and adjectives denoting membership in a particular association, or relation to it, should likewise be capitalized.

> Right: I am a Democrat. They are Methodists. Is that sound Republican doctrine? It is a Baptist seminary.

187. Proper names[2] designating particular institutions, such as the titles of schools, colleges, hospitals, buildings, parks, railroads, should usually be capitalized (prepositions,[2] conjunctions,[2] and articles[2] being excepted).

Institutions — schools, buildings, etc.

[1] See Exercises 679–681.

[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Right: The North Side High School. Lafayette College. He attended the University of Kansas. He was taken to the Roosevelt Hospital, which I think is near Morningside Park. The offices of the Burlington Railroad may be in the Monadnock Building, for all I know.

Departments of government

188. Names of particular governmental departments, boards, parliaments, and other bodies should in general be capitalized.

Right: The Congress of the United States is composed of the Senate and the House of Representatives. The Parliament of Great Britain consists of the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The Diet of the German Empire is likewise bi-cameral, and so is the General Assembly of Nebraska.

Right: The Department of the Interior has made a communication to the Illinois Department of Public Instruction.

Federal and state

189. It is customary, however, to distinguish federal authorities from state authorities called by the same name, by capitalizing the name of the federal and not capitalizing that of the state.

Right: The Senate does not concur with the House on the tariff bill.

Right: The Minnesota senate has rejected the school bill passed by the house of representatives.

State

The word *state*, when it designates one of the United States, may be capitalized; but the custom of capitalizing it has fallen somewhat into disuse among the best writers and printers.

Historical events

190. Proper names[1] designating important historical events are usually capitalized; *e.g.*, the Civil War, the French Revolution, the Norman Conquest.

191. A common noun,[1] such as *club, company, society, college, high school, railroad, county, river,*

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

lake, park, street, city, should be capitalized when it is made a component part of a proper name;[1] usually not otherwise. (Cf. Rules 186, 187.) Common-noun elements of proper names

Right: Have you attended high school?
Right: I attended the Englewood High School.
Right: I went to college one year.
Right: What college? Columbia College?
Right: He walked down the street.
Right: He walked from State Street along Twelfth Street as far as Wentworth Avenue. Then he turned south and walked to Twenty-second Street.
Right: They rowed on the river.
Right: The town is on the Fox River.
Right: The largest store in the city.
Right: The largest store in Sioux City.

192. A common noun[1] or an adjective,[1] when used in a restricted sense, may be capitalized, particularly when without capitalization its restricted sense might not be clear. Words in restricted sense

Right: He was executed in the Terror. I swear by the Book. The minister spoke mainly of the Father and the Son. All the vice of New York is said to pay tribute to the Big Fellow. But the Duke said to the Student, "Here, keep your money, old man." The Barbarians, as we have said, often want the political support of the Philistines.
Right: In those days the Roman government was republican. — Hancock County has been Republican for years.
Right: He and I are friends. — Edgar and Isaac are Friends, you know.
Right: He gave me a useful rule.
Right: See Rule 21 [*i.e.*, Rule 21 of the present book — the capital showing that this is the meaning].
Right: The book contains a grammatical vocabulary.
Right: See the Grammatical Vocabulary [*i.e.*, one particular grammatical vocabulary — namely, that in the present book].

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Titles of persons

193. Titles of persons should be capitalized when used in connection with proper names, and when used as vocatives.

Right: There go Professor Cox and Colonel Henry.
Right: I met Mayor Helms and Alderman Cullom.
Right: "You are mistaken, Professor." — "But my dear Colonel, I am sure I am right."

194. When used otherwise, titles of persons should not, as a rule, be capitalized.

Right: The professor became a colonel in the volunteer army.
Right: I met the mayor and the alderman of the first ward.

President etc.

195. But the title of the President and Vice President of the United States, the individual titles of the members of the President's cabinet (the Secretary of State, the Attorney-general, etc.), and the title of the Chief Justice of the federal Supreme Court should always be capitalized. Titles of other federal officers and of state and municipal officers should usually not be capitalized except when they precede proper names.

Right; The President and the Postmaster-general visited our mayor. Several aldermen were called into consultation. The city postmaster, the governor, the president of the university, and the secretary of our debating society also came.

Pronouns referring to Deity

196. The pronouns *he, his, him, thou, thee,* and *thine* are usually capitalized when they refer to God or the Christ.

North, south etc.

197. *North, south, east, west,* and their compounds (*northwest* etc.), and derivatives (*northern* etc.), should not be capitalized except when they designate divisions of the country.

Right: As we sailed north we saw a ship going west.
Right: The West is prosperous. The people of the South are migrating westward. The Northern delegates clashed with the Southern.

Race and language

198. Nouns and adjectives of race and language, such as *Greek, Latin, German, French, English, Indian,* should be capitalized.

German nouns

199. In written German all nouns[1] are capitalized; therefore a German noun used in an English context should be capitalized. (Cf. Rule 225.)

Right: I was still filled with the *Wanderlust.*
Right: He is what we used to call in Berlin an *Obermeisterschottländischdudelsackpfeifer.*
Right: The count had shot "*eine schöne Beutelratte,*" as he said — or, in plain English, a fine 'possum.

Hyphened words

200. When a hyphened word is to be capitalized, only the first component should be capitalized, as a rule.

Right: Seventy-second Street. [136.] *The Adventures of Dare-devil Nat.* Commander-in-chief Fortesque. [120.]

Prefix *ex* not capitalized

201. But when a title preceded by *ex* is capitalized, the prefix should not be capitalized.

Right: This was written by ex-President Roosevelt in collaboration with ex-Senator Jones. [105.]

Literary titles

202. In the title of a literary, artistic, or musical work the first word and all subsequent words except prepositions,[1] conjunctions,[1] articles,[1] and unemphatic pronouns[1] and auxiliaries[1] should be capitalized.

Right: Kipling's *The Light that Failed,* Swift's *A Tale of a Tub* and *The Battle of the Books,* Dickens's *A Tale of Two Cities,* Kingsley's *Westward Ho.*

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Predications: After period

203. In a complete independent predication[1] which follows a terminal period,[2] or begins a composition or a direct quotation,[3] the first word should be capitalized.

After semicolon

204. A complete independent predication[1] following a semicolon should not be capitalized.

Right: Go to the library; your father wants you.

After colon

205. A complete independent predication[1] following a colon should not be capitalized if it is the only predication introduced by the colon.

Right: The explanation is simply this: the water rises because it is hot.

206. But if the predication following a colon is only the first of a series introduced by the colon, — a series the members of which are separated by periods, — it should be capitalized.

Right: The explanation is this: First, the water is heated. Next, it rises because it is lighter than the water above. Finally, it descends from the top by a different system of pipes.

Appositive after colon

207. When a colon introduces an appositive,[3] grammatical or rhetorical, the appositive should of course not be capitalized.

Right: The ingredients are these: barley, hops, and water. [374.]
Right: I am sure of this: that his administration was honest. [374.]
Right: It is used in three ways: for food, for medicine, and for clothing. [383.]

Series of questions

208. In a series of closely related interrogative predications,[4] the member or members following the first may be written without capitalization.

[1] See 243, 244. [2] See footnote 1, p. 86.
[3] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[4] See 236 ff.

Right: Must I obey you? must I crouch before you?
Right: What's his name? where does he live? what does he do? No one knows.

Parenthetic predication

209. An independent predication[1] interpolated in, or attached to, another, and enclosed between parentheses, dashes, or commas, should not be capitalized.

Right: His profits (he told me this himself) were ten thousand.
Right: I dressed — you may not believe this, but it's true — in twenty minutes.
Right: Three thousand dollars, it is estimated, have already been spent.

Quoted predication

210. A complete independent predication[1] that is directly quoted should be capitalized, as was stated in Rule 203.

Right: The captain cried, "All hands to the pumps!"

Quoted fragments

But note: **211.** A quoted word or expression not constituting an independent predication[1] should not be capitalized when incorporated elsewhere than at the beginning in a predication of the quoter. (Cf. Rule 470.)

Right: It seemed to be "without form and void."
Right: The "safe and sane" policy of our governor.

212. A partially quoted predication from which the quoter omits words that stand at the beginning of the original predication is generally not capitalized when used as a chapter heading or as a motto on a title-page or a fly leaf.

Right: CHAPTER III

". . . with ruin upon ruin, rout on rout."
— *Paradise Lost.*

[1] See 242–244.

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Lines of poetry

213. The first word of every line of poetry should be capitalized.

Right:

So shall I love thee
Down in the dark — lest
Glowworm I prove thee,
Star that now sparklest.
— BROWNING.

Paragraphed clauses

214. When a sentence is divided into paragraphs for the purpose of emphasizing its several parts, — as is done in public resolutions, legal instruments, and technical writing, — the first word of every such paragraph should be capitalized.

Right:

Whereas . . . . . ; and
Whereas . . . . . ; therefore be it
Resolved . . . . .

Capitalization without reason

215. Common nouns[1] should, in general, not be capitalized except in accordance with one of the preceding rules. Do not capitalize words which there is no reason for capitalizing, such as *locomotive, forest, organ, rhetoric, mathematics, history, whooping cough, landlady, bulldog, electricity, citizen, flour mill, profession, gold mine, teachers' convention, freshman, sophomore, junior, senior.*

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

ITALICS[1]

216. Italics should be indicated in manuscript by one straight line drawn below each word to be italicized. Do not use wave lines; do not use double or triple lines; do not use print instead of script. Draw *one straight line* under each word to be italicized. Representation in MS.

217. Titles of literary, musical, and artistic works, and of periodicals and newspapers, should be italicized[2] when mentioned in written discourse. Titles

Right: Walter Scott's *The Talisman*, Rider Haggard's *King Solomon's Mines*, Talford's *Ion*, and the *Atlantic Monthly* furnish his principal amusement.

218. It is permissible to enclose titles in quotation marks, instead of italicizing them; but the simpler and better approved practice is to italicize. **219.** Do not italicize the author's name, nor enclose it in quotation marks if quotation marks are used instead of italics. Exclusion of author's name

BAD: We studied *Irving's Astoria.*
Right: We studied Irving's *Astoria.*
BAD: "Scott's Marmion" is a spirited poem.
Right: Scott's "Marmion" is a spirited poem.
Preferable: Scott's *Marmion* is a spirited poem.

220. Quote literary, musical, and artistic titles exactly. Accurate citation

BAD: Whitman's poem *Captain, O My Captain* commemorates Lincoln.
Right: Whitman's poem *O Captain, My Captain* commemorates Lincoln. [381.]

221. If the title of a single literary, musical, or artistic work begins with *the* or *a*, this word should not be omitted in writing the title, and it should be capitalized and italicized.[2] Titles beginning with *the* or *a*:

[1] See Exercise 682. [2] See 216.

Single works

WRONG: Do you like Kipling's *Man Who Was* and Chaminade's *Silver Ring?*
Right: Do you like Kipling's *The Man Who Was* and Chaminade's *The Silver Ring?*
WRONG: I felt depressed after reading the *House of Mirth.*
Right: I felt depressed after reading *The House of Mirth.*
WRONG: Poe's story *Descent into the Maelstrom* is very vivid.
Right: Poe's story *A Descent into the Maelstrom* is very vivid. [381.]

Periodicals

222. In writing the name of a newspaper or other periodical, however, a *the* limiting the noun of the title should not be capitalized or italicized, even if it is part of the title; and the name of a city modifying adjectively the noun of the title should not be italicized.

Right: She found there some copies of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, the *Evening Telegraph*, the *Century Magazine*, the New York *Evening Post*, and the Madison (Wisconsin) *Democrat.*

Ships

223. Names of ships should be italicized.[1]

Right: I cut the *Hispaniola* from her anchor.

Words discussed

224. When a word is spoken of *as a word*, — not used to represent the thing or idea that it ordinarily represents, and not quoted, — it should be italicized.[1] When a word is spoken of as a quoted word, it should usually be inclosed in quotation marks and not italicized.

Right: The misuse of *grand*, *awful*, and *nice* is a common fault.
Right: In the expression, "we, the people," "people" is in apposition with "we."

Foreign words

225. Unnaturalized foreign words introduced into an English context should usually be italicized.[1]

Right: He is a *bona fide* purchaser.
Right: The president *pro tempore* endeavored to maintain the *status quo.*

[1] See 216.

226. A word may be emphasized by means of italics.[1] But italics should not be used for this purpose except in cases where obscurity or misconstruction would result from lack of emphasis. Since such cases are rare, italicizing for emphasis should be rare. **Emphasis**

BAD: The curse of this age is *commercialism* coupled with *hypocrisy*.
Right: The curse of this age is commercialism coupled with hypocrisy.

227. Italics[1] should not be used for the purpose of calling attention to one's own humor or irony. (Cf. Rules 532, 533 *f*.) **Labeling humor**

BAD: The villain in the play was *charming*.
Right: The villain in the play was charming.

228. Italics[1] should not be used except in accordance with one of the foregoing rules. Do not italicize the names of schools, colleges, mercantile firms, political parties, religious sects, labor unions, fraternities, scientific associations, buildings, streets, parks, rivers, canals, railroads, governmental authorities, committees, or departments of public administration, or other names, without special reason. **Use without good reason**

[1] See 216.

PUNCTUATION

Introduction

Definition

229. Punctuation is the use, in writing or printing, of certain marks called points, in addition to the symbols used to represent words. The points are as follows:

The period .
The semicolon ;
The colon :
The question mark ?
The exclamation mark !
The comma ,
The dash —
Parentheses, or parenthesis marks ( )
Brackets [ ]
The apostrophe '
The hyphen -
Quotation marks " " and ' '

230. The marks " and ' are the initial quotation marks, and the marks " and ' are the terminal quotation marks. These are distinguished in print; but they are not distinguished in typewriting, and (as explained in Rule 8) need not be distinguished in manuscript.)

231. The points are used for two purposes:

Separative use

(*a*) They are used to *separate* consecutive parts of connected discourse. For example, consider the following passages of connected discourse:

(1) They cautiously approached the man in gray whom they saw standing on the veranda looked formidably big and muscular

(2) My aunt had made no preparation for our visit was entirely unannounced
(3) At twelve o'clock to-day I intend to strike my friend

As printed above, these passages are not clear at first reading. They can be made clear at first reading by the *separation* of certain consecutive parts in each one. The first we can make clear by *separating* the two consecutive parts "They cautiously approached" and "the man . . . looked formidably big and muscular," thus:

They cautiously approached. The man in gray whom they saw standing on the veranda looked formidably big and muscular

or thus:

They cautiously approached; the man in gray whom they saw standing on the veranda looked formidably big and muscular

The second we can make clear by *separating* the two consecutive members "My aunt had made no preparation" and "for our visit was entirely unannounced," thus:

My aunt had made no preparation, for our visit was entirely unannounced

or thus:

My aunt had made no preparation; for our visit was entirely unannounced

The third we can make clear by *separating* the two consecutive parts "At twelve o'clock to-day I intend to strike" and "my friend," thus:

At twelve o'clock to-day I intend to strike, my friend

(*b*) They are used to *designate* words and letters as used in certain particular ways. For example, consider the following obscure expressions: Designative use

(1) I heard the boy's shout in the distance and by it judged that he had made a discovery
(2) I do not know which would-be American you mean
(3) George said I was a wretched incompetent like that of any use to you

We can make the first of these expressions clear by *designating* that the *s* of "boys" is used to form the possessive singular, thus:

> I heard the boy's shout in the distance and by it judged that he had made a discovery

We can make the second clear by *designating* that the words "would be" are used to form an adjective, thus:

> I do not know which would-be American you mean

We can make the third clear by *designating* that the words "George" and "was a wretched incompetent like that of any use to you" are quoted, thus:

> "George" said I "was a wretched incompetent like that of any use to you"

Thus, punctuation is of two kinds — *separative* and *designative*. These will be discussed in order in Rules 233–535.

Advantages of good punctuation: Clearness

232. There are two reasons for devoting study and care to punctuation:

(*a*) Good punctuation is necessary to make the meaning of written discourse immediately clear; neglect of punctuation, or improper punctuation, often makes written discourse obscure or misleading. The obscurity or liability to misconstruction caused by poor punctuation may be only temporary; but that fact does not excuse poor punctuation. It is a writer's business not only to avoid absolute obscurity, but to avoid vexing the reader by giving him an impression which a moment later he

perceives is mistaken. For example, consider this sentence:

> When the doctor had left Mr. Hawkins lying quietly on the sofa, presently began to snore.

This sentence is clear after one has read it through; but it is not immediately clear as one reads it. One reads "When the doctor had left Mr. Hawkins lying quietly on the sofa," supposing that this is a dependent clause, and one reads "presently" supposing it is the first word of the principal clause; but in reading "began to snore," one is annoyed to find that one has misconstrued the sentence and must reconstruct the sense, making "When the doctor had left" the dependent clause, and "Mr. Hawkins . . . presently began to snore" the principal clause. Written English in reading which one continually finds oneself thus misled and compelled to retrace one's steps in order to reconstruct the sense, is a constant irritation to the reader — an irritation for which there is obviously no defense in the plea that the sense can be made out if one will but be patient. Now, the sentence quoted above can be made immediately clear by correct punctuation, thus:

> When the doctor had left, Mr. Hawkins, lying quietly on the sofa, began to snore.

And not only can the sentence be made immediately clear by punctuation, but it cannot be immediately clear without punctuation. As in this case, so in many others, punctuation is not only an effective means, but a necessary means, to immediate clearness.

Propriety

(*b*) Good punctuation is desirable for the sake of propriety. In many cases where the punctuation required by good usage is not necessary to clearness, the lack of it is uncouth. For example, the following expressions are clear at first reading:

Where have you been John.
I could not get into the house the janitor careless fellow having locked the door and gone home.
In Nutley New Jersey there are few factories.
In Nutley, New Jersey there are few factories.
On May 17 1907 we sailed for Belfast Ireland.
On May 17, 1908 we returned.

But though they are clear, they are uncouth as they stand. A reader accustomed to well-written English is, when he reads such sentences, distracted from the writer's thought to the oddity of the way in which the thought is expressed. The sentences should be punctuated thus:

Where have you been, John?
I could not get into the house, the janitor — careless fellow — having locked the door and gone home.
In Nutley, New Jersey, there are few factories.
On May 17, 1907, we sailed for Belfast, Ireland.
On May 17, 1908, we returned.

This punctuation does not make the sentences any clearer than they were as first printed: "Where have you been John." is as clear as "Where have you been, John?" "On May, 1908 we returned" is as clear as "On May, 1908, we returned." But the fact that an expression is perfectly clear does not always prove that the expression need not be corrected; if this were the case, there would be no good ground for objecting to such expressions as "I would have went," "you have rode," "he seen what I done," for they are perfectly clear. In punctuation, as in grammar, the claims of good usage are to be respected, as well as those of clearness.

SEPARATIVE PUNCTUATION

Definition

233. Separative punctuation is, as was said above (231*a*), the separation, by points, of consecutive parts of

connected discourse. What particular parts should be so separated, and by what particular points they should be separated, — these matters the following rules are intended to state.

Necessity of understanding the terminology

234. Before the reader begins to read the rules of separative punctuation, he should be emphatically warned of one thing: namely, the necessity of clearly understanding the terms used in the rules. The elements that make up connected discourse are of a number of different kinds. These different kinds of elements must be called by different names if rules concerning them are to be formulated. A person reading such rules must, in order to make use of them, know what elements are referred to by the terms used. The most common-sense, definite, clean-cut direction is meaningless to a man who does not understand the terms it employs. The direction "On a sheet of paper ten inches long and four inches wide draw a line parallel to the longer sides and midway between them" could not be intelligently followed by a man who did not know what "paper," "parallel," and "midway" meant, who thought that "four" denoted a larger number than "ten," and who was uncertain whether an inch was the length of his thumb nail or the length of his thumb. The reader of this book is advised to make sure, in reading the rules of punctuation, that he understands the terms used to denote different elements of connected discourse. Explanations of these terms are given on pages 360–384 and at other places, which will be indicated as occasion for referring to them arises. The reader is advised to turn frequently to these explanations. He is advised to consult the explanation of even those terms with which he is familiar; and this for two reasons: First, to many people grammatical terms, though they are familiar, are vague, calling up in the mind, not distinct ideas, but blurred and

confused impressions like those called up by the terms in

> "'Twas brillig, and the slithey toves
> Did gyre and gimble in the wabe."

Let the reader see to it that *phrase, clause, conjunction, preposition, pronoun, dependent, coördinate, absolute, vocative, subject, predicate, participle, modifier, appositive,* etc. have in his mind meanings as distinct and as incapable of being confounded with one another as the meanings of *house, chair, floor, ceiling, horse, dog, earth, sky.* Second, some grammatical terms are used by different people in different senses. Let the reader be sure that he knows the sense in which every grammatical term is used *in this book.*

Punctuation a mystic art?

Many people find punctuation a strangely perplexing subject, in which they are unable, in spite of earnest effort, to make any headway. They read a page of rules and then cannot tell what they have read; they study for weeks and do not feel that they know any better how to punctuate than before they began; they find many of the rules obscure, and many elusive and unrememberable. They conclude that the whole subject has something metaphysical and mystical about it. There may be readers of this book who have had such an experience, and who are saying, "Can you show us some means of getting hold of this apparently intangible art?" We answer, Yes, we can show you a means of getting hold of it; but only on one condition — that you will understand the terms we use, and will understand them in the senses in which we use them.

Importance of the term *predication*

235. In most cases the grammatical terms may be studied in connection with the rules in which they occur. But there is one term — the most important of all that are used in this book — the meaning of which it is necessary that the reader master at once, before proceeding

further. This is the term *predication*. An understanding of many other terms is necessary to an understanding of many single rules that follow; but an understanding of the term *predication* is fundamental to an understanding of the entire system of separative punctuation here presented.

Predication defined

236. A predication is (1) an expression composed of a subject[1] and predicate[1] or composed of a predicate in the imperative[1] mode with the subject omitted; or (2) a series of such expressions connected by a pure coördinating conjunction between each two members or by one pure coördinating conjunction before the last member.

(**237.** The pure coördinating conjunctions are *and*, *but*, *for*, *or*, *nor*, and *neither*.[2])

Simple and compound

238. A predication of the first kind mentioned in Section 236 is a simple predication; one of the second kind a compound predication. For example, the following are simple predications:

God reigns.
God, who created all things, reigns in heaven, though fools deny it.
Stop.
Stop talking, if you please.

The following are compound predications:

God reigns, and the Republic still lives.
God reigns, the Republic lives, and all is well.

Not compound

239. The expression "God reigns; the Republic still lives" is not a compound predication, for its members are not connected by a conjunction; it is two separate predications. **240.** The expression "God reigns; therefore the Republic lives" is not a compound predication,

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

[2] The conjunctions *both* and *either* need not be named, for they are used only in correlation, respectively, with *and* and *or*.

for its members are joined, not by a pure conjunction, but by a conjunctive adverb; it is two separate predications.

NOTE. — The chief conjunctive adverbs are *so*, *therefore*, *hence*, *however*, *yet*, *still*, *nevertheless*, *moreover*, *further*, *furthermore*, *accordingly*, *besides*, *also*, *thus*, *then*, *indeed*, *otherwise*.

Separate and component

241. A simple predication[1] may be (1) separate or (2) component. A separate simple predication is one which is not part of a compound[1] predication; a component simple predication is one which is part of a compound predication. For example, in "God reigns, and the Republic still lives," "God reigns" is a component simple predication. In each of the three expressions

God reigns. The Republic lives.
God reigns; the Republic lives.
God reigns; so the Republic lives.

"God reigns" is a separate predication.

Independent and dependent

242. An independent predication is a predication[2] which is not grammatically dependent on any words outside itself. For example, the following are independent predications:

The bell rang. [Simple independent predication.]
The bell rang just as I sat down. [Simple independent predication.]
The bell rang, and my uncle entered. [Compound independent predication.]
The bell rang, I arose, and my uncle entered. [Compound independent predication.]

The italicized expressions following are dependent predications:

When *the bell rang*, I rose. ["The bell rang" is made by "when" dependent on "rose."]
The man rang the bell *which lay on the table.* ["Which lay on the table" is dependent on "bell."]

[1] See 238–240. [2] See 236.

243. A complete independent predication is (1) the whole of a separate[1] simple independent[2] predication including any adjuncts that may be attached to it, as distinguished from its bare[3] subject and predicate; or (2) the whole of an independent compound[4] predication, as distinguished from its component simple predications. For example: (1) The whole expression "They cheered the brave soldier who had restored the flag after it had been shot down" is an independent predication; but the main part, "they cheered the brave soldier," is also an independent predication; a rule concerning a *complete* independent predication applies to the whole expression as distinguished from the main part. (2) The expression "God reigns, and the Republic lives" is an independent predication, but so are the two parts "God reigns" and "the Republic lives"; a rule concerning a *complete* independent predication applies to the whole expression as distinguished from its two parts.

Complete independent predications

Each of the following expressions is a complete independent predication:

Examples of complete independent predications

(*a*) A crowd assembled. [Simple. Subject "crowd"; predicate "assembled."]

(*b*) A goddess girdled with flowers and smiling farewell upon a circle of worshipers, to each one of whom that gracious calmness made the smile sweeter and the farewell more sad; other figures, other flowers, an angel's face, — all these I saw in that group as I swayed up and down the deck by the eager swarm of people. [Simple. Subject "I"; predicate "saw."]

(*c*) To add to the relief, besides, by one of those malicious coincidences which suggest for Fate the image of an underbred and grinning schoolboy, we had no sooner worn ship than the wind began to abate. [Simple. Subject "we"; predicate "had worn."]

(*d*) I love to recall the glad monotony of a Pacific voyage,

[1] See 241. [2] See 242.
[3] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[4] See 238–240.

Examples of complete independent predications

when the trades are not stinted, and the ship, day after day, goes free — the mountain scenery of trade-wind clouds, watched (and in my case painted) under every vicissitude of light — blotting stars, withering in the moon's glory, barring the scarlet eve, lying across the dawn collapsed into the unfeatured morning bank, or at noon raising their snowy summits between the blue roof of heaven and the blue floor of the sea; the small, busy, and deliberate world of the schooner, with its unfamiliar scenes, the spearing of dolphin from the bowsprit end, the holy war on sharks, the cook making bread on the main hatch; reefing down before a violent squall, with the men hanging out on the footropes; the squall itself, the catch of the heart, the open sluices of the sky; and the relief, the renewed loveliness of life, when all is over, the sun forth again, and our out-fought enemy only a blot upon the leeward sea. [Simple. Subject "I"; predicate "love" with objects.]

(*e*) Then if Johnson were the visitor, he would pick a snack out of the cupboard, and stand, braced against the table, eating it, and perhaps obliging me with a word or two of his hee-haw conversation — how it was "a son of a gun of a cold night outside, Mr. Dodd" (with a grin), how "it wasn't no night for panjammers, he could tell me"; having transacted all which, he would throw himself down on his bunk and sleep his two hours with compunction. [Simple. Subject "he"; predicate "would pick and stand" with adjuncts.]

(*f*) Halt. [Simple. Subject omitted; predicate "halt."]

(*g*) Present arms. [Simple. Subject omitted; predicate "present."]

(*h*) If I feel her arm leaning more heavily on mine as we walk around the squares, I press it closely to my side, for I know that the easy grace of her youth's motion will be restored by the elixir of that Spanish air. [Compound. Subject of the first member "I"; predicate "press." Subject of the second member "I"; predicate "know."]

(*i*) Mephistopheles is not personally disagreeable, and is exceedingly well-bred in society; and he should come *tête-à-tête* with Mrs. Rawdon Crawley. [Compound.]

(*j*) I believe you. [Simple.]

(*k*) The drowsy tune of a hand organ rises from the square, and Italy comes singing upon the sound. [Compound.]

(*l*) Apollo laughed. [Simple.]
(*m*) Twenty years ago there was no lovelier piece of lowland scenery in South England, nor any more pathetic in the world, by its expression of sweet human character and life, than that immediately bordering on the sources of the Wandle, and including the lower moors of Addington, and the villages of Beddington and Carshalton, with all their pools and streams. [Simple.]

Not single predications

Of the following expressions, each is a *group of two or more* complete independent predications; none is a single complete predication (see Sections 239, 240):

(*a*) He is not an extinct volcano; he is the dead stick of a rocket. [Two complete independent predications.]
(*b*) He sang; he danced; he laughed; he was the soul of gayety. [Four complete independent predications.]
(*c*) He was ambitious; therefore I slew him. [Two complete independent predications.]
(*d*) Have I been niggardly? have I grudged you any pleasure? [Two complete independent predications.]
(*e*) This is the reason: Jennings is the more capable man. [Two complete independent predications.]
(*f*) It is my property; give it to me. [Two complete independent predications.]

Virtual predications:

244. A virtual complete independent predication is a word or a group of words occurring in connected discourse, not grammatically connected with any words preceding or following, not interpolated in a predication[1] or attached to one in thought, and not constituting a predication, though usually equivalent to a complete independent predication.[1] There are many kinds of virtual complete independent predications, among which may be mentioned the following:

Questions and answers

(*a*) Questions and answers from which some elements of a predication are omitted because easily understood from what precedes. Such are the italicized expressions following:

[1] See 236, 243.

(1) You ask whether he knows Greek. *No.* Greek was not taught when he attended the school. ["No" is equivalent to the predication "He does not know Greek."]
(2) Was the full value received? *By no means.* The house was sold for only five thousand dollars. ["By no means" is equivalent to the predication "The full value was by no means received."]
(3) Was this illegal? *Of course.* I never knew a plainer case of illegality. ["Of course" is equivalent to the predication "This was of course illegal."]
(4) "I have to buy a good many steel traps."—"*Steel traps? Why?*" ["Steel traps?" is equivalent to the predication "You have to buy many steel traps?" "Why?" is equivalent to the predication "Why do you have to buy steel traps?"]
(5) The accident was of course due to some one's mistake. Whose? ["Whose?" is equivalent to the predication "It was due to whose mistake?"]

Introductory and concluding expressions

(*b*) Expressions introducing a topic or concluding the discussion of a topic. For example:

(1) *Now as to your last question:* When our agreement was made, I believed . . . ["Now as to your last question" is equivalent to the predication "Now I will speak as to your last question."]
(2) *So much for your last question.* I believe I have nothing more to say. ["So much for your last question" is equivalent to the predication "I say so much for your last question."]

Salutations

(*c*) Salutations. For example:

(1) I must go now. *Good-by.* I will see you later. ["Good-by" is an abbreviation of the predication "God be with you."]
(2) *Good morning, boys.* Are you out for a walk? ["Good morning, boys" is equivalent to the predication "I wish you a good morning, boys."]

Exclamations

(*d*) Expressions more or less exclamatory, from which some of the elements essential to a predication are omitted on account of emotion. For example:

(1) *A cup of water! Quick!*
(2) The chaplain praised you! *The chaplain!* You never saw the chaplain.

(3) That's mine. *Hands off!* Let go, I tell you.

Miscellaneous examples of virtual complete independent predications

The following are miscellaneous examples of virtual complete independent predications:

(*a*) *All aboard!* It's time for us to go.
(*b*) "I found it on the lake shore."—"*Really?* I am astonished."
(*c*) "He says it's too small."—"*Too small, indeed!* How much does he want?"
(*d*) He thinks we are ruled by reason. *Dismal error!* We are ruled by the newspapers.
(*e*) Can I explain it? *Nothing easier.* The defendant and the plaintiff were in collusion.
(*f*) I see how it's done. *Perfectly simple.* Now let me try.
(*g*) Is that my hat? *Thanks.* Have you found yours?
(*h*) "I am the watchman."—"*You the watchman! Nonsense!*"
(*i*) *Your health.* May you live long.
(*j*) Is he gone? *Well, so much the better.* We are well rid of him.
(*k*) *How touching!* I never heard the like of it.
(*l*) "Will you sit?"—"*If you please.* I am very tired."
(*m*) "Was he mad?"—"*Perhaps.* That would explain some of the facts."
(*n*) *Hello, old man. Going swimming to-day? Fine weather.*

If it is now clear to the reader what the terms *complete independent predication* and *virtual complete independent predication* mean, we may proceed with our exposition of separative punctuation.

Two branches of separative punctuation:

245. Separative punctuation, let it be once more recalled, is the separation, by points, of consecutive parts of connected discourse. Now, all connected discourse is made up of a succession of complete independent predications, actual or virtual.[1] The first thing that separative punctuation does is to separate every complete independent predication from the following one by certain points agreed upon by custom for this purpose. This is called end punctuation, because it consists in placing points at

End punctuation

[1] See 243, 244.

the end of every complete independent predication. The second thing that separative punctuation does is to separate one member from a following member within a complete independent predication by certain points agreed upon by custom for this purpose. This is called interior punctuation. Separative punctuation is thus divided into two classes — end punctuation and interior punctuation.

Interior punctuation

Consider the following passage, printed without punctuation:

> The men all wounded their hands and faces bloody from the thorns in the underbrush tried to pass the sentry struck and kicked and knocked about the gate had been rushed so suddenly that he could not even snatch up his gun was helpless but more serious obstacles soon presented themselves

The separative punctuation of this passage consists, first, in separating its complete independent predications by placing the proper end mark between them — *i.e.*, at the place indicated below;

End punctuation

> The men all wounded their hands and faces bloody from the thorns in the underbrush tried to pass || the sentry struck and kicked and knocked about the gate had been rushed so suddenly that he could not even snatch up his gun was helpless but more serious obstacles soon presented themselves

second, in separating certain consecutive parts within the predications by placing the proper interior marks between them — *i.e.*, at the places indicated below.

Interior punctuation

> The men | all wounded | their hands and faces bloody from the thorns in the underbrush | tried to pass || the sentry | struck and kicked and knocked about | the gate had been rushed so suddenly that he could not even snatch up his gun | was helpless | but more serious obstacles soon presented themselves

246. The difference between end punctuation and interior punctuation is a very important thing for a student

of punctuation to understand; for the confusion of the two — the use of end punctuation where interior punctuation belongs, or *vice versa* — is the worst possible blunder in punctuation. Importance of the distinction

A WORKING SYSTEM OF SEPARATIVE PUNCTUATION[1]

247. The rules of separative punctuation are numerous; they cannot all be reduced to a scheme that can be grasped in a few minutes of study. But among these numerous rules there are seven which, in ordinary prose, need to be applied oftener than all the rest put together. In order to punctuate well, one must know all the rules; but one can punctuate fairly if one knows and applies only the seven referred to above. These rules will now be presented to the reader, so that he may get quickly a working system of punctuation. In order that the presentation may be as concise as possible, these seven rules are here given without mention of certain unimportant exceptions and modifications which are allowable in some cases. To trouble the reader with these at this point would only interfere with the present purpose, which is to help the reader to get under way as expeditiously as possible. Mention of the modifications and exceptions is therefore reserved for the more complete discussion to be given later. Meanwhile, if the reader applies the following seven rules rigorously and without exception, he will in no case go astray; for the exceptions and modifications above referred to are all merely permissible — not obligatory. Seven rules pre-eminent

248. At the end of a complete independent predication[2] that is declarative or imperative, put a period, a colon, or a semicolon — a period in most cases; I. End punctuation

[1] See Exercises 684 ff. [2] See 243.

End punctuation

(*a*) Right: This is my house. Leave it.

a colon if the predication formally introduces a following one;

(*b*) Right: I command it for this reason: you have impudently intruded where you are not wanted.

a semicolon if the predication is otherwise closely related to the following one.

(*c*) Right: Leave this house; you are not wanted here.
(*d*) Right: He has wronged me; I demand redress.

When the predication is followed by a predication introduced by a conjunctive adverb (*so, therefore, hence, however, yet, still, nevertheless, moreover, further, furthermore, accordingly, besides, also, thus, then, indeed, otherwise*), use a period or a semicolon — not a comma.

(*e*) Right: It was dark. Therefore I went cautiously.
Right: It was dark; therefore I went cautiously.

Never leave the end of a complete independent predication unmarked by any point.

(*f*) **BAD**: It makes no difference where or how they meet they are always glad to see each other.
Right: It makes no difference where or how they meet; they are always glad to see each other.
(*g*) **BAD**: I must go give me my hat.
Right: I must go. Give me my hat.

Never put a comma at the end of a complete independent predication.

(*h*) **BAD**: Soon after Easter I went home, there all the trees were in bud.
Right: Soon after Easter I went home. There all the trees were in bud.
(*i*) **BAD**: One look at him was enough, he was clearly a member of the police force.
Right: One look at him was enough; he was clearly a member of the police force.

(*f*) **BAD**: The first thing we had to do was to secure a permit to go through the house, having secured this permit, we proceeded to the east entrance.
Right: The first thing we had to do was to secure a permit to go through the house. Having secured this permit, we proceeded to the east entrance.

II. Coördinate clauses

249. Between coördinate clauses[1] of a compound predication,[2] put a comma or a semicolon — usually a comma.

(*a*) Right: Along the east side are a number of plum trees, and several flower beds dot the lawn near by.
(*b*) Right: He waved his hand, and the train started.
(*c*) Right: He is rich and respected; but what good does it do him?

III. Adverbial clauses

250. Put a comma between an adverbial clause[1] and its principal clause[1] when the adverbial clause precedes, but usually not when it follows the principal clause.

(*a*) Right: When the ship is in, the lock is closed.
(*b*) Right: The lock is closed when the ship is in.
(*c*) Right: If I can, I will remove it.
(*d*) Right: I will remove it if I can.

IV. Relative clauses

251. Put a comma between a relative clause[1] and its antecedent[1] if the clause is non-restrictive,[3] and in that case only; never put a comma between a restrictive[3] relative clause and its antecedent.

(*a*) Right: In 1606 Shakespeare wrote *Macbeth*, which is his shortest play. [Non-restrictive.]
(*b*) Right: A braggart is one who uses boastful language. [Restrictive.]
(*c*) Right: Shakespeare's plays which were written in the years 1604–1609 are all tragic and somber. [Restrictive.]

Put a comma after a non-restrictive relative clause, as well as before, if the clause does not complete the independent predication.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 238–240. [3] See 252.

(*d*) Right: Shakespeare's *Macbeth*, which is his shortest play, was written in 1606.

Meaning of *restrictive* and *non-restrictive*

252. A restrictive relative clause is a relative clause[1] the omission of which would make the principal clause meaningless or would change its meaning. A non-restrictive relative clause is one without which the principal clause would have the same meaning. For example, in sentence *b* above, the clause "who uses boastful language" is restrictive, because if it were omitted, we should have "A braggart is one," which is meaningless. In sentence *c*, the clause "which were written in the years 1604–1609" is restrictive, because if it were omitted, we should have "Shakespeare's plays are all tragic and somber," which has an entirely different meaning from that of "Shakespeare's plays which were written in the years 1604–1609 are all tragic and somber." On the other hand, "which is his shortest play," in sentences *a* and *d*, is a non-restrictive clause, because if it were omitted, we should have "In 1606 Shakespeare wrote *Macbeth*" and "Shakespeare's *Macbeth* was written in 1606," which have the same meaning as in the original sentences.

V. Erroneous junction

253. Put a comma between two consecutive elements within a predication if those elements would be liable, were there no point between them, to be erroneously joined in reading.

(*a*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD:** On the path leading to the cellar steps were heard.
Clear: On the path leading to the cellar, steps were heard.

(*b*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD:** Outside the yard looked cold and cheerless.
Clear: Outside, the yard looked cold and cheerless.

(*c*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD:** Ever since I have taken daily practice on the parallel bars.
Clear: Ever since, I have taken daily practice on the parallel bars.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

254. When the syntactic[1] relation between two members of a predication would, because of intervening words, not be immediately clear were no punctuation used, enclose the intervening words between commas. VI. Intervening words

(*a*) Right: I supposed, *to tell the truth*, that it was a pencil.
(*b*) Right: His refusal to be a candidate, *however*, is hard to explain.
(*c*) Right: Ruling pens, *like any other sharp instrument*, become dull with use.
(*d*) Right: He left the chamber for the purpose, *as he said*, of consulting the duke.

255. Never put a period before an appositive,[1] a participial phrase,[1] an absolute phrase,[1] a subordinate clause,[1] or any other expression that is not an independent predication,[2] but the concluding member of a predication. VII. Period fault

(*a*) **BAD**: There are seven buildings around the quadrangle. Three on each side and one at the north end.
Right: There are seven buildings around the quadrangle, three on each side and one at the north end.
(*b*) **BAD**: Helen had never known any one intimately except her father. Her mother having died when Helen was a baby.
Right: Helen had never known any one intimately except her father, her mother having died when Helen was a baby.
(*c*) **BAD**: She could judge the problems of life impersonally and without prejudice or bias. A power rarely found in a woman writer.
Right: She could judge the problems of life impersonally and without prejudice or bias, a power rarely found in a woman writer.
(*d*) **BAD**: A man in a men's class can quite properly wear a flannel shirt. While in a class where there were women this would be in bad taste.
Right: A man in a men's class can quite properly wear a flannel shirt, while in a class where there were women this would be in bad taste.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 242.

A MORE COMPLETE SYSTEM OF SEPARATIVE PUNCTUATION

256. In the following sections will be presented the remaining rules of punctuation, which are less frequently applied than the seven rules given above; and along with the new rules, the seven already given will be repeated, in their proper connections, with fuller explanations and with statements of modifications.

END PUNCTUATION

Declarative and Imperative Predications[1]

Declarative and imperative predications

257. The end of a complete independent predication,[2] actual or virtual,[2] that is declarative or imperative should be marked by a period, a colon, a semicolon, or an exclamation mark. The cases in which these several marks are proper will be stated in the following sections.

Period

258. Any complete independent declarative or imperative predication may correctly be closed by the period, though the other end points are preferable in many cases.

(*a*) Right: Yonder proud ships lying at the foot of this mount are not means of annoyance to you, but your country's own means of distinction and defense.
(*b*) Right: All is peace.
(*c*) Right: But, alas, you are not all here. Time and the sword have thinned your ranks. Prescott, Putnam, Stark, Brooks, Read, Pomeroy, Bridge, our eyes seek for you in vain amid this broken band.
(*d*) Right: Stop. Give me that paper.
(*e*) Right: Halt. Fall out to water the elephant. Be quick.
(*f*) Right: You ask whether my uncle knows. He does. He approves also.
(*g*) Right: The hope has failed. It was a delusion.
(*h*) Right: Everywhere practicable, everywhere efficient, it has an arm a thousand times stronger than that of

[1] See Exercises 684–699, 734–738. [2] See 243, 244.

Hercules, and a thousand times as many hands as belonged to Briareus. Steam is found in triumphant operation on the seas; and under the influence of its strong propulsion, the gallant ship

"Against the wind, against the tide,
Still steadies with an upright keel."

(*i*) Right: That's right. Bind him. Now gag him.
(*j*) Right: Wait. I have a question. Have you registered?
(*k*) Right: Come on. The way is clearer now.
(*l*) Right: I don't know whom you mean. I never knew a man named Scudamour.
(*m*) Right: Do it now. Don't wait.
(*n*) Right: I never knew. At least I don't remember.
(*o*) Right: Here's trouble. I've lost my portfolio.
(*p*) Right: We are too late. She has gone.

Virtual Predications

Virtual predications

(*q*) Right: "Give me some water." — "*Very well.* Will you have Apollinaris?"
(*r*) Right: *Good morning.* Have you used Pears' soap?
(*s*) Right: "Telephone to Evans." — "*All right. Just as you please.* You know your business best."
(*t*) Right: "Will you do me a favor?" — "*With pleasure.* I am glad to be able to serve you."
(*u*) Right: "What do you think of this tea?" — "*Worthless.* I never tasted worse."
(*v*) Right: We arrived on Tuesday. *Too late.* The stock had been sold.
(*w*) Right: *A strange sunset, Mr. Yeo.* It forebodes a storm, I think.

New predication begun with *and*, *but*, etc.

259. An independent predication[1] introduced by *and*, *but*, *for*, *or*, or *nor* may be separated from a preceding declarative or imperative predication by the period.

(*a*) Right: This is a question the determination of which is of the utmost importance to me. And for you yourselves, it seems to me, the question is not less grave.
(*b*) Right: I cannot speak, to purpose, of anything about which I do not care; and I do not care about this building of yours. But when you sent me your invitation, I could not bluntly decline it.

[1] See 242.

(*c*) Right: This comes from the vastness of art and the variety of human organizations. For art is so immense a study that no man ever knew the whole truth about it.

(*d*) Right: I suppose you treat your churches experimentally because it does not, you think, matter what mistakes you make in a church. Or do you think that this style should be reserved for your churches only?

Effect

The effect of using the period in this way is to make the predication introduced by the conjunction a new complete independent predication, standing out distinctly from the preceding predication. The effect of using a comma or a semicolon instead of the period is to join the two predications into a compound predication. It rests with the writer to choose which effect he desires. But in making the choice, one should bear in mind two considerations:

Use in avoiding stringy sentences

260. To place a comma or a semicolon before a predication introduced by *and, but, for, or,* or *nor* may make the compound predication thus formed stringy and displeasing; in such a case it is better to treat the predication introduced by the conjunction as a new complete independent predication — *i.e.*, to place a period before it.

STRINGY: He hardly ever spoke a rough or unkind word, and one would suppose he had discarded the quarter-deck vocabulary entirely, but he had not, for sometimes a word slipped from him that recalled to poor Hester her husband's evil past.

Improved: He hardly ever spoke a rough or unkind word, and one would suppose he had discarded the quarter-deck vocabulary entirely. But he had not, for sometimes a word slipped from him that recalled to poor Hester her husband's evil past.

Illogical grouping

261. To place a comma or a semicolon before a predication introduced by *and, but, for, or,* or *nor* may produce an illogical grouping of the predications in the context. When the logical office of the conjunction is to link its

predication, not merely to the predication immediately preceding, but to a *series* of predications preceding, the conjunction should be preceded by a period. For example, consider the following passage:

(*a*) **ILLOGICAL:** Some people prefer to have the hay bunched by hand instead of with a horserake. They assert that when bunched by hand, the hay is left much looser, but this process is much longer than bunching with a horserake, and the advantage is too small to compensate for the expenditure of time.

The punctuation here is illogical, for this reason: The thought of the passage consists of two parts — (1) a statement of the views of "some people," and (2) an argument against those views, this part introduced by "but." The expression "but this process" etc. is, in thought, set over against "Some people . . . looser." But as the passage is punctuated, "but this process" etc. seems to be set over against "They assert." The passage should be punctuated as follows:

Right: Some people prefer to have the hay bunched by hand instead of with a horserake; they assert that when bunched by hand, the hay is left much looser. But this process is much longer than bunching with a horserake, and the advantage is too small to compensate for the expenditure of time.

Likewise:

(*b*) **BAD:** I consider their conduct very prudent. I consider it very conscientious also, and now let us imagine what would have been the consequence of the course recommended by their critics.

Right: I consider their conduct very prudent; I consider it very conscientious also. And now let us imagine what would have been the consequences of the course recommended by their critics.

(*c*) **BAD:** All of us acknowledge the excellent results accomplished by fraternal insurance societies for the large class of people who, but for such societies, would not carry any insurance whatever. There is no conflict, or should be none, between fraternal and other

insurance institutions, for all have their proper places, but it is nevertheless a serious problem how to deal with the very great number of associations, styling themselves fraternal whose actions toward their members are of a most unfraternal character.

Right: All of us acknowledge the excellent results accomplished by fraternal insurance societies for the large class of people who, but for such societies, would not carry any insurance whatever; there is no conflict, or should be none, between fraternal and other insurance institutions, for all have their proper places. But it is nevertheless a serious problem how to deal with the very great number of associations styling themselves fraternal whose actions toward their members are of a most unfraternal character.

(*d*) **BAD**: Let us by all means regard the welfare of future generations. Let us not forget that we hold this beautiful city in trust for our children's children, and yet we may without impropriety give a little thought to our own present happiness.

Right: Let us by all means regard the welfare of future generations; let us not forget that we hold this beautiful city in trust for our children's children. And yet we may without impropriety give a little thought to our own present happiness.

(*e*) **BAD**: I do not consider it tragic, as the gentleman who preceded me does. Nor do I agree with my colleague in calling it pathetic, for what is tragedy and what is pathos? . . .

Right: I do not consider it tragic, as the gentleman who preceded me does; nor do I agree with my colleague in calling it pathetic. For what is tragedy, and what is pathos? . . .

Colon

262. A complete independent predication,[1] actual or virtual,[1] which formally introduces a following predication, should be closed by the colon. (Cf. Rules 205, 206.)

(*a*) Right: The following incident then occurred: a white-robed woman glided out, said she was the ghost of my mother, and fell on my neck. [205]

(*b*) Right: Mr. Foster spoke as follows: "My friends, it is with deep emotion that I rise to address you . . ."

(*c*) Right: He will probably proceed thus: "Dearly beloved, on Sunday next . . ."

[1] See 243, 244.

(*d*) Right: Follow these rules: Speak calmly. Stand still. Be brief. [206]

(*e*) Right: There is only one thing left for me: I must commit *hara-kiri*.

Virtual Predications

Virtual predications

(*f*) Right: *To illustrate my meaning:* Have you ever observed closely one of the maps posted by the Weather Bureau? . . . [206]

(*g*) Right: *Now for the gentleman's alleged refutation of my chief argument:* Do I understand the gentleman to assert . . . [206]

Semicolon

263. The semicolon may be placed after a complete independent declarative or imperative predication,[1] actual or virtual,[1] which does not formally introduce the following predications, but is otherwise related with particular closeness to it. For example:

Explanation

264. The semicolon may be used after a predication followed by one which explains it or some part of it.

Right: Neagle was appointed to act as the judge's bodyguard; this precaution was deemed necessary on account of Terry's threats.

Cause

265. The semicolon may be used after a predication followed by one stating a cause.

Right: Escape by the stairs was impossible; the whole staircase was in flames.

Consequence

266. The semicolon may be used after a predication followed by one stating a consequence.

Right: The whole staircase was in flames; escape by that way was impossible.

Instance

267. The semicolon may be used after a predication followed by an instance or illustration.

Right: He is patient, forbearing, and resigned, on philosophical principles; he submits to pain, because

[1] See 243, 244.

it is inevitable, to bereavement, because it is irreparable, and to death, because it is his destiny.

Right: Profound scholarship is compatible with poetic grace; Milton and Arnold were laborious students and makers of beautiful poetry.

Antithesis

268. The semicolon may be used between two predications forming an antithesis.[1]

Right: Brooks was an impostor and a demagogue; Abbot was the personification of conscience and sincerity. Abbot's chief recommendation was his immaculate record; the chief care of Brooks was to cover his record.

Positive and negative

269. The semicolon may be used after a positive predication followed by a negative predication supplementing it.

Right: He went to Mexico; he did not go to Canada.

Negative and positive

270. The semicolon may be used after a negative predication followed by a positive predication supplementing it.

Right: He did not come in a carriage; he walked.

Reënforcement

271. The semicolon may be used after a predication followed by one reënforcing it.

Right: He was a master of the art of deception; no man ever surpassed him in the subtlety of his lies.

Virtual Predications

Virtual predications

Right: Are they neglected? *Not at all;* they are scrupulously cared for.

Right: "Can you box?" — "*Yes;* I have studied the art under the best masters."

Right: "Should I apologize?" — "*Certainly;* it is plainly your duty."

Repetition

272. The semicolon may be used after a predication that expresses the same or nearly the same idea in different words.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Right: A good name is rather to be chosen than riches; loving favor is better than silver and gold.

273. The semicolon may be used between predications giving instances of a general statement preceding. Group of instances

Right: Prices of food stuffs were very high. Butter cost thirty-five cents a pound; the price of eggs varied, but was never lower than forty cents a dozen; meat was so costly that only the rich could buy it.

274. When the semicolon is thus used, the introductory statement may be followed by a colon.

Right: We have several things to do: we must first buy our tickets; we must check our trunks; we must send a telegram to our host; we must buy the bride a lamp.

275. The semicolon may be used between predications that together go to make up one impression. Group forming one general impression

Right: He has his eyes on all his company; he is tender towards the bashful, gentle towards the distant, and merciful toward the absurd; he can recollect to whom he is speaking; he guards against unseasonable allusions, or topics which may irritate; he is seldom prominent in conversation, and never wearisome.

276. Wherever the semicolon may be used between two independent predications, the period may be used with perfect propriety (see Rule 258). Period or semicolon?

Right: The whole staircase was in flames; escape by that way was impossible.
Right: The whole staircase was in flames. Escape by that way was impossible.
Right: He did not come in a carriage; he walked.
Right: He did not come in a carriage. He walked.

The effect of the period between two independent predications is to make each stand out more distinctly; the effect of the semicolon is to join the two closely together. It rests with the writer to choose which effect he desires.

Abuse of semicolon

277. As a means of combining predications, the semicolon is sometimes abused. A series of predications should not be grouped by means of semicolons, unless the group so formed has a distinct and readily felt unity.

Exclamation mark

278. The exclamation mark may be used after a complete independent declarative or imperative predication supposed to be uttered with emotion.

Right: This is a pretty state of affairs!
Right: Take off your hat, you rogue!

Virtual Predications

Right: *Up with your flag, sergeant!* What are you about there?
Right: *A fine story, truly!* We don't believe a word of it.

279. Two consecutive predications, the second introduced by a conjunctive adverb[1] without a pure conjunction,[2] do not form a compound predication (see Section 240); the separation of them, therefore, is a matter of end punctuation, not of interior punctuation. Hence:

Conjunctive adverbs

280. A complete independent predication,[3] actual or virtual,[3] introduced by one of the conjunctive adverbs (*so, therefore, hence, however, yet, still, nevertheless, moreover, further, furthermore, accordingly, besides, also, thus, then, indeed, otherwise*) without a pure conjunction,[2] should be separated from a preceding declarative predication, not by the comma, but by one of the end marks (see Rule 257) — in most cases either the period or the semicolon (see Rule 276).

(*a*) Right: He showed himself utterly incompetent to perform the duties of his office; so he was discharged.
Right: He showed himself utterly incompetent to perform the duties of his office. So he was discharged.
(*b*) Right: He feared his wife would be injured by the

[1] See 240, note. [2] See 237. [3] See 243, 244.

corrupt influence of Arthur's court. So he determined to withdraw with her to his own home. Conjunctive adverbs

Right: He feared his wife would be injured by the corrupt influence of Arthur's court; so he determined to withdraw with her to his own home.

(*c*) Right: It was very hot; so I went without my coat.

Right: It was very hot. So I went without my coat.

(*d*) Right: I saw no reason for moving; therefore I stayed still.

Right: I saw no reason for moving. Therefore I stayed still.

(*e*) Right: He knew they had overlooked his breach of the rules; *hence his elation.* [Virtual predication.]

Right: He knew they had overlooked his breach of the rules. Hence his elation.

(*f*) Right: The hinge was broken; hence there was difficulty in securing the door.

Right: The hinge was broken. Hence there was difficulty in securing the door.

(*g*) Right: The door could not be fastened tight. However, they felt fairly safe.

Right: The door could not be fastened tight; however, they felt fairly safe.

(*h*) Right: The scales did not weight accurately, and the measures had false bottoms; still the customers made no complaint.

Right: The scales did not weigh accurately, and the measures had false bottoms. Still the customers made no complaint.

(*i*) Right: Vance's coat was moth-eaten and threadbare. Nevertheless he went manfully and cheerfully with the others.

Right: Vance's coat was moth-eaten and threadbare; nevertheless he went manfully and cheerfully with the others.

(*j*) Right: Now every one seemed absorbed in the proceedings on the platform; accordingly Harris slipped out without being observed.

Right: Now every one seemed absorbed in the proceedings on the platform. Accordingly Harris slipped out without being observed.

(*k*) Right: The wood had warped and rotted. Besides, I doubted whether the thing would fit.

Right: The wood had warped and rotted; besides, I doubted whether the thing would fit.

(*l*) Right: The president graciously bowed; then Hughes began his speech.

Right: The president graciously bowed. Then Hughes began his speech.

(*m*) Right: He must understand Russian. Otherwise how could he have got the password?

Right: He must understand Russian; otherwise how could he have got the password?

So that and *so as to*

281. Rule 280 is sometimes erroneously applied to expressions introduced by the phrases *so that* and *so as to*. The rule concerns independent predications introduced by *so;* but *so that* and *so as to* never introduce independent predications; *so that* always introduces subordinate clauses,[1] and *so as to* always introduces infinitive phrases.[1] Rule 280 therefore has nothing to do with *so that* and *so as to*. These expressions should be preceded by no point at all, or else by the comma (see Rules 358, 359).

Right: We strapped it so that it would remain in place. [358.]

Right: We strapped it so as to hold it steady. [358.]

Right: A heavy mist hung over the lagoon, so that we had to proceed cautiously. [359.]

Right: Stand up straight, Grady, so as to take your share of the load. [359.]

So without any point

282. It is a particularly bad fault to write an independent predication introduced by a conjunctive adverb[2] without putting any point between it and the preceding predication.

BAD: He was found incompetent so the secretary removed him.

Right: He was found incompetent; so the secretary removed him. [280.]

Right: He was found incompetent. So the secretary removed him. [276.]

Parenthetic phrases

283. Two consecutive predications, the second introduced by a parenthetic[3] phrase such as *for example, that is, in fact,* do not form a compound predication;[4]

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

[2] See 240, note. [3] See 345, 392, 402. [4] See 238–240.

the separation of them, therefore, is a matter of end punctuation, not of interior punctuation. Hence: **284.** When one of the parenthetic expressions *for example, for instance, that is, that is to say, in other words, at any rate, on the other hand, on the contrary, to tell the truth, as a matter of fact, in fact, i.e.*, and *e.g.* introduces a complete independent predication,[1] the expression should be preceded, not by a comma, but by a period, a colon, or a semicolon, according to the relation of the predication to the preceding one (see Rules 257, 262, 263). *For example, that is, in fact, etc.*

(*a*) Right: There is a vital difference between them. That is, one is an artist, the other a statesman. [258.]
Right: There is a vital difference between them: that is, one is an artist, the other a statesman. [262.]

(*b*) Right: He had to work without the tools usually employed. For example, he had no hammer and no ax. [258.]
Right: He had to work without the tools usually employed; for example, he had no hammer and no ax. [276.]

285. Note that a comma should in every case follow the parenthetic expression. *Comma after parenthetic expression*

BAD: He dressed gaudily, for instance: he wore an orange necktie.
Right: He dressed gaudily. For instance, he wore an orange necktie. [258, 403.]
Right: He dressed gaudily; for instance, he wore an orange necktie. [276, 403.]

286. Parenthetic[2] predications are excepted from Rule 257. *Parenthetic predications excepted*

Right: I am not now speaking of fancy (concerning this subject, see Chapter LXXXVII) but only of imagination. [424–426.]

Interrogative Predications

287. A complete independent predication[1] (actual or virtual)[1] which is interrogative in sense, whether inter- *Interrogative predications*

[1] See 243, 244. [2] See 392.

rogative in form or not, should be followed by a question mark.

(*a*) Right: Where were you?
(*b*) Right: "I was at the station." — "*You were at the station?*"
(*c*) Right: "I saw our faithful ally." — "*Our faithful ally?* Whom do you mean?" [Virtual predication.]

Indirect questions

288. An *indirect* question,[1] however, should not be followed by a question mark.

(*a*) Right: He asked *what was wrong.*
(*b*) Right: The question *whether he did right* is still undecided.
(*c*) Right: *What is to become of the Siamese* is a puzzling question.
(*d*) Right: *How we are to do it* is the question.

But note:

(*e*) Right: *How are we to do it?* is the question. ["How are we to do it?" is a *direct* question, used as the subject of "is." Cf. "*Down with the foreigners!*" *was the cry.*]

Parenthetic questions not excepted

289. Parenthetic[2] predications are not excepted from Rule 287.

Right: Mr. Avery (isn't that his name?) has moved into the office. [424–426.]

Exclamative Predications

Exclamative predications

290. A complete independent predication[3] (actual or virtual)[3] which is exclamative in sense (though it may be interrogative in form) should be followed by an exclamation mark.

(*a*) Right: What a noble patriot he was!
(*b*) Right: "How terrible was the blow!" exclaimed Ives, shocked.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 392.
[3] See 243, 244.

(*c*) Right: *How terrible!* Can I do nothing to help her? [Virtual predication.]
(*d*) Right: *What a joke!* Excuse my laughter. [Virtual predication.]

291. Parenthetic predications are not excepted from Rule 290. Parenthetic exclamation not excepted

Right: Mr. Avery (what a queer fellow he is!) has moved out again. [424–426.]

Incorrect Omission of End Punctuation

292. The end of a complete independent predication[1] (actual or virtual)[1] should not be left unmarked by any point. Omission of end punctuation

(*a*) **BAD**: I hid myself high up in the haymow my brother could not find me for a long time.
Right: I hid myself high up in the haymow. My brother could not find me for a long time. [258.]
(*b*) **BAD**: It was of no use I could not persuade her.
Right: It was of no use. I could not persuade her. [258.]
(*c*) **BAD**: One moment please what is your name? ["One moment please" is a virtual complete independent predication; see Section 244.] Virtual predications
Right: One moment, please. What is your name? [258.]
Right: One moment, please; what is your name? [276.]
(*d*) **BAD**: "I am ready." — "All right come along." ["All right" is a virtual complete independent predication; see Section 244.]
Right: "All right. Come along." [258.]
Right: "All right; come along." [276.]
(*e*) **BAD**: "Can he drive a motor?" — "Of course did you think he was an ignoramus?" ["Of course" is a virtual complete independent predication; see Section 244 *a*.]
Right: "Of course. Did you think he was an ignoramus?" [258.]
(*f*) **BAD**: Good-by I'll see you later. ["Good-by" is a virtual complete independent predication; see Section 244 *c* (1).]
Right: Good-by. I'll see you later. [258.]

[1] See 243, 244.

The Cardinal Error of End Punctuation

The comma fault

293. The Comma Fault. — A comma should never be placed at the end of a complete independent predication[1] (actual or virtual.)[1] The violation of this rule is called the Comma Fault. It is the worst fault a writer can commit in end punctuation, and one of the two worst faults in all punctuation (the other is the Period Fault; see Rule 463).

(*a*) **BAD**: Our men had won every preceding game of the season, this made them overconfident.
Right: Our men had won every preceding game of the season. This made them overconfident. [258.]
Right: Our men had won every preceding game of the season; this made them overconfident. [276.]

(*b*) **BAD**: I want to point out one defect in the plan, the salary of the president is too small.
Right: I want to point out one defect in the plan. The salary of the president is too small. [258.]
Right: I want to point out one defect in the plan: the salary of the president is too small. [262.]

(*c*) **BAD**: Then I hurried to breakfast, it was a very good meal but I had only six minutes to spend on it.
Right: Then I hurried to breakfast. It was a very good meal, but I had only six minutes to spend on it. [258.]

(*d*) **BAD**: Where is he, I want to speak to him.
Right: Where is he? I want to speak to him. [287.]

Virtual predications

(*e*) **BAD**: Are the European forests neglected? By no means, the government takes thoroughgoing measures to preserve them. ["By no means" is a virtual complete independent predication; see Section 244 *a*.]
Right: By no means. The government takes thoroughgoing measures to preserve them. [258.]
Right: By no means; the government takes thoroughgoing measures to preserve them. [270.]

(*f*) **BAD**: Good evening gentlemen, will you come in. ["Good evening gentlemen" is a virtual complete independent predication; see Section 244 *c* (2).]
Right: Good evening, gentlemen. Will you come in? [258.]

(*g*) **BAD**: I sold the goods at a big profit. And not only that, I got a charter to Sydney. ["Not only that"

[1] See 243, 244.

is a virtual complete independent predication; see Section 244.]

Right: I sold the goods at a big profit. And not only that; I got a charter to Sydney. [263.]

(*h*) **BAD**: "He wrung out four thousand." — "As much as that, I am astonished." ["As much as that" is a virtual complete independent predication; see Section 244*a*.]

Right: As much as that? I am astonished. [287.]

294. Most instances of the comma fault arise in the separation of predications closely connected in thought — too closely, the writer feels, to be separated by the period. Let it be borne in mind that in case of two such predications the proper mark is not the comma, but the semicolon (see Rule 263). Comma for semicolon

295. The comma fault is often committed by the placing of a comma before a complete independent predication introduced by a conjunctive adverb, such as *so, therefore, then, thus, however*, etc. (see Rules 279, 280). Conjunctive adverbs

BAD: He went below and cut the rope, then he returned to the deck.

Right: He went below and cut the rope. Then he returned to the deck. [258.]

Right: He went below and cut the rope; then he returned to the deck. [276.]

296. The comma fault is often committed through a writer's failure to observe whether an expression such as *for example, that is, in fact*, etc. introduces an appositive[1] or a complete independent predication (see Rule 284). *For example, that is, in fact.*

BAD: I succeed very well with the more mechanical studies, for example, I have no trouble at all with draughting.

Right: I succeed very well with the more mechanical studies. For example, I have no trouble at all with draughting. [258.]

Right: I succeed very well with the more mechanical

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

studies; for example, I have no trouble at all with draughting. [276.]

Direct quotations

297. The comma fault is very often committed through violation of Rule 475 (*q. v.*).

Correction of the error

298. When the comma fault has been committed, it should be corrected, not by merely canceling the comma, but by substituting for the comma the proper end point — usually the period or the semicolon.

INTERIOR PUNCTUATION

General Rules

Erroneous junction

299. In a simple predication[1] (separate or component),[1] two consecutive elements which, were there no point between them, would be liable to be erroneously joined in reading, or would be capable of ludicrous misconstruction, should be separated by some point — in most cases by a comma.

(*a*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD :** While the hungry soldiers were eating a child the son of one of the natives evidently approached.

Clear : While the hungry soldiers were eating, a child — the son of one of the natives, evidently — approached.

(*b*) **AMBIGUOUS :** Near by the Bradleys' house a low green bungalow could be seen.

Clear : Near by, the Bradleys' house, a low green bungalow, could be seen.

(*c*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD :** For her business was never so pressing that she could not stop to console a friend in trouble ; for him business took precedence of even friendship and humanity.

Clear : For her, business was never so pressing that she could not stop to console a friend in trouble ; for him, business took precedence of even friendship and humanity.

(*d*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD:** He departed entertaining no doubt an unfavorable opinion of his host.

Clear : He departed entertaining, no doubt, an unfavorable opinion of his host.

[1] See 238, 241.

(*e*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD:** If space would permit other hints might be given.
Clear: If space would permit, other hints might be given.

(*f*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD:** As he approached the house looked deserted.
Clear: As he approached, the house looked deserted.

(*g*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD:** Above the snow-capped peak of the mountain glistened.
Right: Above, the snow-capped peak of the mountain glistened.

(*h*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD:** Within the house looked less inviting.
Right: Within, the house looked less inviting.

(*i*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD:** Below the village could be indistinctly seen.
Right: Below, the village could be indistinctly seen.

(*j*) **LIABLE TO BE MISREAD:** Inside the family were gathered.
Right: Inside, the family were gathered.

Intervening words:

300. When the syntactic relation between two members of a simple predication[1] (separate or component)[1] would, because of intervening words, not be immediately clear were no punctuation used, the intervening words should be enclosed between commas, dashes, or parentheses, as follows: **301.** Commas should be used in most cases.

(i) Two commas

(*a*) Right: He left the council chamber for the purpose, as he avowed, of consulting his spiritual director.

(*b*) Right: English discourse employing words generally approved by good usage, and employing them in the senses and in the grammatical functions and combinations generally approved by good usage, is called good English.

(*c*) Right: They saved him, in a way which was not generally understood, from becoming a bankrupt.

(*d*) Right: It was his duty, as soon as the ship anchored, to go ashore with the lady.

(*e*) Right: The scene was like what he imagined, ignorant as he was, of a theater.

(*f*) Right: I am skeptical, more or less, of all his promises.

(*g*) Right: He was ignorant, to a remarkable degree, of our business methods.

[1] See 238, 241.

(*h*) Right: He was, like all his predecessors, averse to innovations.

Omission of second comma

302. Do not put one comma before the intervening expression and neglect to put another *after*. **Enclose the expression between two commas.**

(*a*) **BAD**: I will not insist, however on your staying.
Right: I will not insist, however, on your staying.
(*b*) **BAD**: British cities have, like Topsy "just growed."
Right: British cities have, like Topsy, "just growed."

(ii) Dashes or parentheses

303. When the intervening expression has commas or other points within itself, it may be enclosed between dashes or parentheses.

Right: He left the chamber for the purpose — as he explicitly declared to Morris, the English ambassador — of consulting his spiritual director.
Right: He left the chamber for the purpose (as he explicitly declared to Morris, the English ambassador) of consulting his spiritual director.

Commas with dashes: When wrong When right

304. (*a*) When dashes are used for this purpose, no commas should be used in addition unless a comma would be required before the preceding word were the matter between the dashes omitted; in that case a comma should precede each dash. (Cf. Rules 308, 309, 391, 427, 428, 521, 522.)

Right: If he had refused the offer, — as Clinton, Matthews, and Harrison, his old, trusted associates, said he did, — I could understand the case. [In "If he had refused the offer, I could understand the case," a comma is required after "offer"; see Rule 349.]
Right: He refused — at least, so Clinton, Matthews, and Harrison all assert — to accept the offer.

Comma with parentheses

(*b*) When parentheses are used, no comma should be used in addition unless one would be required were the parenthesized matter omitted; in that case a comma should follow the second parenthesis.

Right: I will then (all the draughting, printing, etc. being finished) send for you.
Right: When the work is all done (the draughting, the printing, the making of the patterns, and the preparation of the furnace), you may send for me. [In "When the work is all done, you may send for me," a comma is required after "done"; see Rule 349.]

Separation of Coördinate Elements

Coördinate Elements without Conjunctions

Consecutive adjectives

305. Two or more adjectives[1] preceding and modifying the same noun[1] and not joined by a conjunction[1] or conjunctions should be separated by a comma if they are coördinate in thought; but if one adjective is, in sense, superposed on the following, these two should not be separated by a comma.

Right: *Adjectives coördinate in thought*	Right: *First adjective superposed on following*
a faithful, sincere friend	a friendly old man
the hot, roaring fire	a live electric wire
a big, healthy man	a big gray cat
The vivacious, charming young girl helped the wretched, starving newsboy.	The generous rich girl helped the unhappy poor girl.
my dear, kind, considerate father	a jolly old German fiddler

Wrong comma after last member

306. The last of a series of attributive[1] adjectives preceding a noun should not be followed by a comma.

WRONG: good, hard, practical, work.
Right: good, hard, practical work.

Emendation — dash

307. (*a*) A member of a predication, grammatically coördinate[1] with a preceding member, but having the rhetorical[1] effect of an emendation, should be preceded by a dash.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

(1) Right: Oh, he was polite enough — polite as a Chesterfield.
(2) Right: He was polite — polite as a Chesterfield; but he was also, like Chesterfield, a cynic. [321.]
(3) Right: Tennyson's poem *Lady Clare Vere de Vere* is the speech of a manly young country fellow to a beautiful but heartless lady of high birth, who has attempted to amuse herself by breaking his heart — a speech expressing disdain for beauty without goodness of heart, and contempt for hereditary rank the possessor of which lacks true virtue and honor.

Dash following

(*b*) Such a member, if it does not close a simple predication[1] (separate or component),[1] should also be followed by a dash.

(1) Right: He is polite — polite as a Chesterfield — but cynical.
(2) Right: That he was dead — that I should never see him again — I could hardly believe.

Commas with dashes: When right

308. When an emendation of the kind mentioned above is enclosed between dashes, and when, if the emendation were omitted, a comma would be required after the preceding word, a comma should precede each dash. (Cf. Rules 304, 391, 427, 428, 521, 522.)

(*a*) Right: If he is so polite, — polite as a Chesterfield, — why do you find him so disagreeable? [349.]
(*b*) Right: When the weather is bad, — especially when it is raining hard, — he is very cross to us all. [349.]

When wrong

309. But no comma should be thus used in addition to the dashes unless one would be required if the matter set off by the dashes were omitted.

Right: He wept — wept like a child — and called for mercy.

Especially — dash

310. Expressions introduced by *especially* and not preceded by a conjunction[2] often stand in the grammatical and rhetorical relation mentioned in Rule 307.

[1] See 238, 241.
[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Such expressions should in that case be set off by a dash or enclosed between dashes. (Cf. Rules 360–362.)

(*a*) Right: He is fónd of music — especially the music of the old composers.
(*b*) Right: All their hearts — especially Margaret's — were gladdened by the news.
(*c*) Right: He was determined to see all the public buildings, — especially the sky-scrapers, — though I did my best to head him off. [308, 359.]

311. Note that the *especially* should not be followed by a comma. No comma after *especially*

312. Coördinate[1] members of a predication that are not joined by a conjunction[1] or conjunctions should, except in the cases stated in Rules 305 and 307, be separated by the comma or the semicolon, as follows: **313.** They should usually be separated by the comma if none of the coördinate members require commas within themselves. Other coordinate members without conjunctions: (i) Comma

(*a*) Right: Press it gently, firmly, steadily.
(*b*) Right: If he is moved, if he has pity, if he is generous, he will aid us.

314. They should be separated by the semicolon if the coördinate members, or some of them, are of considerable length or require commas within themselves. (ii) Semicolon

Right: It was due to the great satirist, who alone knew how to use ridicule without abusing it; who, without inflicting a wound, effected a great social reform; who reconciled wit and virtue after a long and disastrous separation, during which wit had been led astray by profligacy and virtue by fanaticism.

315. The semicolon should not be used if none of the coördinate members are long or have commas within themselves. Misuse of semicolon

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

WRONG: He was a man of honor; a good citizen; a true Christian.
Right: He was a man of honor, a good citizen, a true Christian.

Coördinate Elements with Conjunctions

Mistaken non-junction — two commas

316. When two coördinate[1] members of a predication that are joined by a conjunction[1] have a common syntactic[1] relation to the following member, and when the structure is such that without punctuation only the second of the coördinate members might seem to have that relation, the second member together with the conjunction should be enclosed between commas.

(*a*) Right: Two days before, and even so late as yesterday morning, I was like a beggarman.
(*b*) Right: By what I could spy in the windows, and by the persons I saw pass out and in, I saw that the neighborhood was very respectable.

Coördinate clauses:

317. When two coördinate clauses,[1] whether independent[1] or dependent,[1] are joined by a pure conjunction (*and, but, for, or, nor,* or *neither*), the conjunction should be preceded by a comma or a semicolon, as follows:

(i) Comma

318. Coördinate clauses joined by a pure conjunction[2] should usually be separated by a comma if the clauses have no points within themselves.

Right: The report will spread to remote villages, and people in the backwoods will hear the details.
Right: He approached the mate, and the captain scowled.

Comma before *for*

319. The observance of the foregoing rule is especially important in the case of clauses connected by the coördinating conjunction *for*. Unless a comma is placed between such clauses, the *for* is liable to be mistaken momentarily for a preposition.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 237.

MISLEADING: It is a decided benefit for students who take exercise are not easily susceptible to sickness.
Clear: It is a decided benefit, for students who take exercise are not easily susceptible to sickness.

And not joining clauses

320. Rule 318 sometimes gives rise to a vague idea that *and* should always be preceded by a comma. Let it be observed that the rule concerns only coördinate *clauses*[1] joined by a conjunction.

WRONG: He seized the rope, and hauled the boat alongside. ["And" joins not clauses, but verbs.]
Right: He seized the rope and hauled the boat alongside.

(II) Semicolon

321. Coördinate clauses joined by a pure conjunction[2] should be separated by a semicolon if the clauses are long, or if some of them contain points within themselves, or if a more decided pause than a comma would furnish is desired.

(*a*) Right: The writer who uses at all such expressions as those in the foregoing list violates good taste; and the writer who drags them into a matter-of-fact context commits a double offense.
(*b*) Right: He had horses, boats, motor cars, and countless friends; and life seemed very gay to him.
(*c*) Right: It is undoubtedly a profitable business; but what of that?

In other cases no separation usually

322. Aside from clauses, and aside from the cases dealt with in Rule 316, two coördinate[1] members of a predication that are joined by a pure conjunction[2] should not usually be separated by punctuation.

Exceptions:

323. But to prevent mistaken junction, or to give distinctness to each member, the comma or the semicolon may be used between them, as follows:

(i) Comma

324. If the members are not long and have no commas within themselves, the comma may be used.

Right: He was tall, and strong as a lion.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 237.

In such a case the second member should usually also be followed by a comma if it does not close an independent predication (see Rule 316).

Right: The report of a railway wreck, or any other disastrous news, would agitate her extremely.

Or with synonym

325. An expression consisting of *or* and a synonym or explanatory term should be set off by a comma or commas, or should be enclosed between parentheses.

Right: *Good-bye* (or *good-by*) should be hyphened.
Right: A puck, or small block of wood, is used in hockey.

(ii) Semicolon

326. If the members are long, or have commas within themselves, a semicolon should be used.

Right: They brought me some cloth of native manufacture, curious stuff made of wood-fiber, so they said, and stained with the most outlandish design; and also a great wooden bowl symmetrically shaped, and polished.

Series with one conjunction:

(i) Comma

327. In a series of three or more coördinate[1] elements connected by one conjunction[1] before the last member, every member except the last should be followed by a comma or a semicolon, as follows: **328.** The comma should be used if the coördinate elements are not long and require no points within themselves.

(*a*) Right: He has pen, ink, and paper.
(*b*) Right: A red, white, and blue flag.
(*c*) Right: He talked, he joked, and he laughed.

Wrong comma after last member

329. A comma should not be used without good reason after the *last* member of a series of the kind just referred to.

WRONG: A dog, a cat, and a monkey, were his only companions.
Right: A dog, a cat, and a monkey were his only companions.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, p. 360 ff.

330. The semicolon should be used if the coördinate elements, or some of them, have points within themselves. (ii) Semicolon

Right: He said that he had lent his neighbor an ax; that on the next day, needing the ax, he had gone to get it; and that his neighbor had denied borrowing it.

331. The semicolon should not be used if none of the members are long or have points within themselves. Misuse of semicolon

WRONG: He was black-eyed; dark-complexioned; and altogether very handsome.
Right: He was black-eyed, dark-complexioned, and altogether very handsome.

332. The members of such a series should not be separated some by commas and others by semicolons; the same mark should be used throughout. (iii) Uniformity

Separation of Subordinate Elements from their Principals

Adjective Elements Preceding their Principals

333. Adjectives,[1] adjective phrases,[1] participles,[1] and participial phrases[1] standing at the beginning of a predication and not used attributively[1] should be followed by a comma. Adjective elements preceding

(*a*) Right: Honest and incorruptible, he spurned the offer.
(*b*) Right: Weary of the long delay, he began to pace the room.
(*c*) Right: Seeing a red cap in the crowd, he thought he had at last found her.
(*d*) Right: Born and reared in Russia, young Napravnik had an inveterate hatred of autocracy.

Adjective Elements Following their Principals

334. A restrictive modifier is a modifier the omission of which would change the meaning of the context. For example, in "Dead men tell no tales," "dead" is restric- *Restrictive* and *non-restrictive* explained

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

tive, for the omission of "dead" would leave "Men tell no tales," which has a different meaning from "Dead men tell no tales." "Dead men" designates a certain *restricted* class of the beings designated by "men"; hence the term *restrictive* as applied to "dead." A non-restrictive modifier is a modifier the omission of which would not change the meaning of the context. For example, in "Beneath yonder rugged elms the rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep," "rugged" and "rude" are non-restrictive, for the omission of these words would leave "Beneath yonder elms the forefathers of the hamlet sleep," which makes the same statement as the original assertion. "Yonder rugged elms" designates the same objects as "yonder elms" — not a restricted class; and "the rude forefathers of the hamlet" designates the same men as "the forefathers of the hamlet." The following rule, it should be clearly noticed, does not concern restrictive and non-restrictive modifiers in general, but only adjective[1] modifiers *following their principals.*[1]

Non-restrictive — comma

Restrictive — no comma

335. (*a*) A non-restrictive[2] adjective[1] element following its principal[1] should be preceded by a comma; and it should also be followed by a comma unless some other point is required by another rule. (*b*) A restrictive[2] adjective element following its principal should not be separated from its principal by punctuation.

The foregoing rule applies to various kinds of adjective elements, as follows:

Relative clauses

336. Relative Clauses. — A non-restrictive[2] relative clause[1] should be set off by the comma; a restrictive relative clause should not be set off by the comma.

The application of Rule 335 to relative clauses[1] is particularly important, for the violation of the rule is a more

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 334.

conspicuous error in the case of relative clauses than in other cases. Wrong separation of restrictive, and failure to separate non-restrictive relative clauses, are common blunders in the writing of many people.

Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses

(*a*) Restrictive relative clause — commas correctly omitted: The soldiers *who served under Napoleon* are all dead. ["The soldiers" is a term of wide application; the relative clause restricts its application. "The soldiers" applies to millions of men in all periods of history; but "the soldiers who served under Napoleon" applies to one particular class of soldiers of a particular period. Using the test, we see that the main assertion without the relative clause ("the soldiers are all dead") has not the same meaning as with the relative clause.]

(*b*) Non-restrictive relative clause — commas necessary: Napoleon's soldiers, *all of whom are now dead*, were faithfully devoted to their general. ["Napoleon's soldiers" is just as definite in application as "Napoleon's soldiers, all of whom are now dead"; therefore the relative clause does not restrict. The main assertion without the relative clause ("Napoleon's soldiers were faithfully devoted to their general") has the same meaning as with the relative clause.]

(*c*) Restrictive relative clause — comma correctly omitted: Napoleon was born in Frying-pan Alley, Baltimore. I refer to the Napoleon *who takes care of our furnace.* ["The Napoleon" is an indefinite term; "the Napoleon who takes care of our furnace" is definite; thus the relative clause restricts the application of the antecedent. The main assertion without the relative clause ("I refer to the Napoleon") is meaningless.]

(*d*) Non-restrictive relative clause — commas necessary: Napoleon, *who was always very self-confident*, felt sure he would win the battle of Austerlitz. ["Napoleon" here can evidently refer to only one person; therefore the relative clause does not restrict the antecedent. "Napoleon, who was always very self-confident" is, in this context, no more restricted than simply "Napoleon." Applying the test, we see that the main assertion without the relative clause ("Napoleon felt sure he would win the battle of Austerlitz") has the same meaning as with the relative clause.]

(*e*) Restrictive relative clause — comma correctly omitted: Architecture is the art *which so disposes and adorns*

Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses

edifices that the sight of them contributes to mental health, power, and pleasure. [Test: "Architecture is the art" is meaningless.]

(*f*) Non-restrictive relative clause — comma necessary: He followed the profession of architecture, *in which he was ambitious to excel.* [Test: "He followed the profession of architecture" has the same meaning without the relative clause as with it.]

(*g*) Non-restrictive relative clause — comma necessary: We followed the stream to its source, *where we found a hunter's cabin.* [Test: "We followed the stream to its source" has the same meaning without the relative clause as with it.]

(*h*) Restrictive relative clause — comma correctly omitted: Zinc mines were the source *whence the Vandenbarks had derived their great wealth.* [Test: "Zinc mines were the source" is meaningless.]

(*i*) Restrictive relative clause — no commas: He *who perseveres* will succeed. [Test: The main assertion without the relative clause ("He will succeed") has not the same meaning as with the clause.]

(*j*) Non-restrictive relative clause — commas necessary: Jonas Engstrom, *who is very persevering*, will surely rise in his profession. [Test: "Jonas Engstrom will surely rise in his profession" has the same meaning without the relative clause as with it.]

(*k*) Restrictive relative clause — no commas: The man *who will dive into the whirlpool and return* shall be rewarded.

(*l*) Non-restrictive relative clause — comma necessary: The cup was given to Vivian Skimmerhorn, *who had shown his bravery by diving into the whirlpool.*

(*m*) Restrictive relative clause — no comma: Lady Macbeth was a woman *who feared nothing.*

(*n*) Non-restrictive relative clause — comma necessary: The heroine is Lady Macbeth, *who is represented as a fearless, unscrupulous woman.*

(*o*) Restrictive relative clause — no commas: Those members *who favor the motion* will say "Aye."

(*p*) Non-restrictive relative clause — comma necessary: Mr. Chairman, I wish to declare my opposition to the present motion, *which seems to me very ill advised.*

(*q*) Non-restrictive relative clause — comma necessary: In the crowd the mayor perceived his wife, *who waved her handkerchief to him.*

(*r*) Restrictive relative clauses — no commas: The Sultan executed his wife *who had plotted against him;* he

let no harm come to the wives *who had been true to him.* Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses

(*s*) Restrictive relative clause — no comma: Tell me the name of the village *in which you were born.*

(*t*) Non-restrictive relative clause — comma necessary: We went to visit the town of Galena, *in which General Grant lived.*

(*u*) Non-restrictive relative clause — comma necessary: Postpone this business until vacation time, *when there will be more opportunity for attending to it.*

(*v*) Restrictive relative clause — no comma: He spoke never a word during all the time *when I was with him.*

(*w*) Right: The city of Chicago, *in which I was born*, has always been my home. [Non-restrictive relative clause.]

(*x*) Right: The city *in which I was born* has trebled its population since the days *when I played in its streets.* [Restrictive relative clauses.]

(*y*) Right: The place *where he stays* is far from here. [Restrictive relative clause.]

(*z*) Right: Do you know the reason *why it sank?* [Restrictive relative clause.]

(*aa*) Right: Washington Irving, *whose personality was genial and charming*, became very popular in England. [Non-restrictive relative clause.]

(*bb*) Right: Every man *who holds such an opinion* is by tendency a criminal. [Restrictive relative clause.]

(*cc*) Right: He committed a serious error, *in correcting which he had much trouble.* [Non-restrictive relative clause.]

(*dd*) Right: The woman *for the benefit of whose family this was done* is dead. [Restrictive relative clause.]

(*ee*) Right: Here they found a number of brass cannon, *which they destroyed.* [Non-restrictive relative clause.]

(*ff*) Right: The days *that I spent there* were happy ones. [Restrictive relative clause.]

(*gg*) Right: There is no scientific theory *which is not open to revision.* [Restrictive relative clause.]

337. Participles[1] and Participial Phrases[1] following their principals should, if non-restrictive,[2] be set off by the comma; if restrictive,[2] they should not be set off by the comma. Participles

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 334.

(*a*) Restrictive participial phrase — no commas: The time *appointed for his arrival* drew near.

(*b*) Non-restrictive participial phrase — commas necessary: The bridegroom, *overwhelmed with embarrassment*, stuttered and stammered.

(*c*) Restrictive participial phrase — no comma: He took down a book *bound in red leather*.

(*d*) Non-restrictive participial phrase — commas necessary: My father's favorite copy of Seneca, *bound in tree calf and lettered in gilt*, was my only companion on my journey.

(*e*) Restrictive participial phrase — no commas: The resolutions *adopted at the meeting last night* were far from pacific.

(*f*) Non-restrictive participial phrase — commas necessary: Lincoln's great Emancipation Proclamation, *issued in time of war*, was technically a war measure.

(*g*) Restrictive participial phrase — no commas: The gentleman *sitting in the third seat of the last row* will have the goodness to wake up.

(*h*) Non-restrictive participial phrases — commas necessary: The incensed captain, *riding up and down and snapping his pistol*, endeavored to stop the retreat.

(*i*) Right: The duke's house, *lighted with a thousand lamps*, presented a memorable spectacle. [Non-restrictive phrase.]

(*j*) Right: A house *lighted with a thousand lamps* would look queer in this town. [Restrictive phrase.]

Adjectives

338. Adjectives[1] and Adjective Phrases[1] following their principals should, if non-restrictive,[2] be set off by the comma; if restrictive,[2] they should not be set off by the comma.

(*a*) Right: Imogen, *pure and lovely*, is a paragon of womanhood. [Non-restrictive adjectives.]

(*b*) Right: Things *pure and lovely* are the Christian's delight. [Restrictive adjectives.]

(*c*) Right: Monmouth, *always irresolute in time of peril*, now wavered and hesitated. [Non-restrictive modifier.]

(*d*) Right: A general *always irresolute in time of peril* is unfit for military command. [Restrictive modifier.]

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 334.

Such as

339. The word *such* is an adjective. An expression introduced by *such as* (*e.g.*, "A blackguard *such as that man is* ought to be whipped") is an adjective modifier — *viz.*, an adjective (*such*) limited by a clause. (The *as* clause limiting *such* is very often elliptical;[1] *e.g.*, "A blackguard such *as that man* ought to be whipped.")

Non-restrictive—comma

Restrictive — no comma

Hence: **340.** An expression introduced by *such as*, following its principal,[1] should be preceded by a comma if it is non-restrictive;[2] it should not be preceded by a comma if it is restrictive.[2]

Right: He has an aversion to rough and violent sports, *such as football and boxing.* [Non-restrictive modifier. See Rule 338.]

Right: He has an aversion to amusements *such as hunting and fishing.* [Restrictive modifier. See Rule 338.]

No point after *such as*

341. The *such as* in such a case should be followed by no mark of punctuation unless a parenthetical expression is inserted between the *such as* and the words that it introduces.

Right: I read many historical novels, such as *Romola*, *Rienzi*, and *Quo Vadis.* [462.]

Right: I read many historical novels, such as, for example, *Romola* and *Rienzi.* [406.]

Omission of second comma

342. It is a common error to omit the necessary comma *after* an interpolated non-restrictive[2] modifier.

WRONG: On November 2, which was the day fixed for the game we assembled at the grounds.

Right: On November 2, which was the day fixed for the game, we assembled at the grounds.

Adverbs

Conjunctive adverbs distinguished

343. Pure adverbs must be distinguished from conjunctive adverbs. A pure adverb is one that modifies distinctly a predicate, an adjective, or an adverb; a con-

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 334.

junctive adverb is one that modifies a whole predication rather than any one part. For example, in "I wish very much that you would come," "much" is a pure adverb, modifying "wish"; in "I wish, nevertheless, that you would come," "nevertheless" is a conjunctive adverb, modifying the whole predication. The same word may be used sometimes as a pure adverb, and sometimes as a conjunctive adverb; *e.g.*, in "I then departed," "then" is a pure adverb, whereas in "What, then, are we to infer?" "then" is a conjunctive adverb. Rule 344, let it be observed, concerns only pure adverbs. Concerning the punctuation proper with conjunctive adverbs, see Rules 394–401.

Adverbs—no comma usually

344. A pure adverb,[1] or a group of pure adverbs, should not usually be separated from the context by punctuation, whatever its position.

Right: He spoke to her gently and kindly.
Right: He spoke gently and kindly to her.
Right: Gently and kindly he spoke to her.

But see Rule 253 with example *b*, and Rule 299 with examples *g*, *h*, *i*, *j*.

Adverbial Phrases and Clauses — Introductory

Adverbial and parenthetic phrases distinguished

345. Adverbial phrases, discussed in the following sections, must be distinguished from parenthetic phrases. A phrase is adverbial if it modifies distinctly a predicate, an adjective, or an adverb; it is parenthetic if it affects the meaning of the whole predication rather than that of any one part. For example, in "He lives in a hotel in Chicago," "in a hotel" is an adverbial phrase, modifying "lives"; in "He lives, in fact, in Chicago," "in fact" is a parenthetic phrase, modifying the whole predication. The same phrase may be in one predication adverbial, in another parenthetic; *e.g.*, in "I will mention

[1] See 243.

in conclusion the Supreme Court," "in conclusion" is used adverbially to modify "mention," but in "In conclusion, what is to be gained by this measure?" "in conclusion" is parenthetic, modifying the whole predication. Concerning the punctuation proper with parenthetic phrases, see Rules 403–407.

346. An introductory adverbial[1] phrase[2] or clause[2] is one which forms the first member of a simple predication,[3] separate or component;[3] for example: *Introductory adverbial modifier* defined

In the park was a fountain.
In the park was a fountain, and *near it* stood a bench.
The room was lighted brightly, and *before the fire* stood Sir Hugh.
When I entered, he looked embarrassed; but *in a moment* he regained his composure.

347. An introductory[4] adverbial phrase[2] not containing a verb should usually not be followed by any mark of punctuation. Introductory phrase without verb — usually no comma

(*a*) Right: *In a small, dingy inn about a mile from the town* I secured a lodging.
(*b*) Right: *A great many years ago* there lived a famous alchemist.
(*c*) Right: There stood on the table a pitcher, *in which* was a bunch of goldenrod.
(*d*) Right: He carried a long pole, *on the top of which* a parrot was sitting.
(*e*) Right: There we sat down to wait, and *in about an hour* our belated friends came up.

But see Rule 253 with examples *a* and *c*, and Rule 299 with examples *b* and *c*.

348. An introductory[4] adverbial clause,[2] or an introductory adverbial phrase[2] containing a verb, should be followed by a comma. Introductory phrase with verb and clause — comma

[1] See 345. [2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[3] See 238, 241. [4] See 346.

(*a*) Right: *Despite his efforts to escape*, he remained a prisoner.
(*b*) Right: *When the ship is in*, the lock is closed.
(*c*) Right: *Though they saw the many improvements accomplished by his ingenuity and industry*, they were yet unsatisfied.
(*d*) Right: *In order to live*, we must eat.
(*e*) *In spite of his weeping*, we saw he was a cheat.

This rule applies to various kinds of introductory adverbial phrases and clauses, as follows:

Complete clauses

349. Complete Clauses. — A complete adverbial clause[1] preceding its governing[1] clause should be followed by a comma.

(*a*) Right: *When I have seen the goods*, I will decide.
(*b*) Right: Let us go in; and *after we have rested awhile*, we will resume our conference. [321.]
(*c*) Right: *If you tell me to do it*, I will do it; but I will hold you responsible for the consequences. [321.]

Elliptical clauses

350. Elliptical Clauses. — An elliptical clause[1] preceding its governing[1] clause should be followed by a comma.

(*a*) Right: *When a boy*, I had few opportunities.
(*b*) Right: *While there*, I met the President.
(*c*) Right: He was a kindly old fellow; but *when drunk*, as he was sometimes, he was the terror of the neighborhood. [321.]

Gerund phrases

351. Gerund Phrases. — A gerund[1] phrase introducing a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should be followed by a comma.

(*a*) Right: *Upon opening the door*, she smelled escaping gas.
(*b*) Right: There we landed; and *after lunching*, we began our plans for the campaign. [321.]

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 238, 241.

352. Infinitive Phrases. — An infinitive phrase[1] introducing a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should be followed by a comma. Infinitive phrases

(*a*) Right: *To succeed in your undertaking*, you must follow your lawyer's advice.
(*b*) Right: Brown can do it after a fashion; but *to have it done right*, you must get a landscape gardener. [321.]

353. Phrases containing Clauses. — A prepositional phrase[1] containing a subordinate clause,[1] introducing a simple predication[2] (separate or component),[2] should be followed by a comma. Phrase containing clause

(*a*) Right: *After all the hardships he has suffered*, he deserves some repose.
(*b*) Right: I searched for a long time in vain; but *in the room where he kept his instruments*, I at last found my book. [321.]

354. An introductory[3] adverbial phrase or clause, unless very long or involved, should not be followed by a semicolon. Misuse of semicolon

WRONG: If you get no thanks from a person you have favored; you lose your respect for him.
Right: If you get no thanks from a person you have favored, you lose your respect for him.

355. An introductory[3] adverbial phrase or clause following *and* or *but* should not be preceded by a comma. No separation from *and* or *but*

Right: I arrived at six o'clock; and *after we had dined*, we made our plans. [321.]
Right: I tried to convince him; but *though I was as eloquent as Balaam*, he remained as obstinate as an ass.

356. But such a modifier following any conjunction[1] other than *and* and *but* should be preceded by a comma if it is followed by one. Separation from other conjunctions

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 238, 241. [3] See 346.

(*a*) Right: I shall be very glad if, *when you have considered the matter*, you will report to me.
(*b*) Right: I doubt whether, *after it is all done*, you will like it.
(*c*) Right: Go up now; or, *if you prefer*, amuse yourself here in the library. [321.]
(*d*) Right: It is a hard question; for, *when you come to think of it*, who knows what *social dynamics* means?

Adverbial Phrases and Clauses — Concluding

Concluding adverbial modifier defined

357. A concluding adverbial[1] phrase[2] or clause[2] is one which forms the last member of a simple predication,[3] separate or component;[3] for example:

I shall be glad *when summer comes.*
I shall be glad *when summer comes*, and so will my grocer.
The bells will ring *in the steeples*, and we shall all be glad *when Johnnie comes marching home.*

Restrictive — no comma

358. A concluding[4] adverbial phrase or clause should not be preceded by any point if it is restrictive.[5]

(*a*) Right: This measure I will oppose *by every means, fair or foul.*
(*b*) Right: He answered the charge *in a way that was more creditable to his ingenuity than to his candor.*
(*c*) Right: It will be weak, ineffectual, and contemptible *if it is not well organized.*
(*d*) Right: The lock is closed *when the ship is in.*
(*e*) Right: We shall eat supper *on the veranda*, and perhaps we shall hear the band *by the time we come to dessert.*
(*f*) Right: I will get the bill passed by the legislature *if I can;* but don't make any rash contracts *until you are sure it is passed.* [321.]

Non-restrictive — comma usually

359. But if a concluding[4] phrase or clause is non-restrictive,[5] it should be preceded by a comma or a semicolon — a comma in most cases, a semicolon if the phrase or clause is long or has points within itself.

[1] See 345. [2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[3] See 238, 241. [4] See 357. [5] See 334.

Right: I do not believe he will do it, *though I admit he has the right to do it if he chooses.*
Right: In an expository essay each of the passages constituting the major units should be somewhat like a distinct composition; *just as a military company, besides being a unit in a regiment, is a complete organization within itself.*

360. A concluding[1] adverbial phrase or clause should not be preceded by a semicolon if it is not long and does not contain points within itself. Misuse of semicolon

WRONG: I shall devote all my time to helping the poor in the slums; even though charity is out of fashion.
Right: I shall devote all my time to helping the poor in the slums, even though charity is out of fashion.

361. A concluding[1] adverbial phrase or clause introduced by *especially* and not preceded by a conjunction[2] should not be preceded by a comma if it is restrictive.[3] *Especially:* Restrictive — no comma

Right: He cares a little for paintings, but is interested especially in music.
Right: He is interested especially in music, but she cares most for painting.

362. But such a phrase or clause should be preceded by a comma if it is non-restrictive.[3] Non-restrictive — comma

Right: I am very glad to subscribe, especially since Pryor is to contribute.
Right: The entertainments are very pleasant, especially in the summer, and are not at all expensive.

363. In either case *especially* should not be separated from the phrase or clause by a comma. See the foregoing examples. No comma after *especially*

364. One should be particularly careful not to omit the comma before a concluding *because* clause that is non- Final non-restrictive *because* clause

[1] See 357. [2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[3] See 334.

restrictive;[1] omission of the comma at such a place is very liable to cause momentary (often ludicrous) misconstruction.

LIABLE TO MISCONSTRUCTION: It cannot be considered injurious because it sharpens the wits.
Right: It cannot be considered injurious, because it sharpens the wits.

Because clause modifying remote verb

365. A *because* clause modifying a verb separated from it by an intervening verb should be preceded by a comma.

LIABLE TO MISCONSTRUCTION: I don't want you to build a fire because the room is warm.
Right: I don't want you to build a fire, because the room is warm.

Distinction between introductory and concluding modifiers

366. Attention should be called particularly to the difference, as regards punctuation, between an adverbial clause *preceding* its governing clause (see Rules 349, 350) and one *following* its governing clause (see Rule 358). Thus, compare "When darkness comes, the lamps are lit" and "The lamps are lit when darkness comes"; "If he stays, I go" and "I go if he stays."

Adverbial Phrases and Clauses — Interpolated

Interpolated modifiers defined

367. An interpolated adverbial[2] phrase[3] or clause[3] is one which forms neither the first member nor the last member of a simple predication,[4] separate or component.[4] For example, an interpolated adverbial phrase or clause may stand —

(*a*) Between a subject and its bare[3] predicate;[3] *e.g.*, "The soldiers *with a loud shout* rushed on."

[1] See 334. [2] See 345.
[3] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[4] See 238, 241.

(*b*) Between a verb and its object;[1] *e.g.*, "He repeated *with much emphasis* his previous declaration."

(*c*) Between a verb and its predicate substantive[1] or adjective; *e.g.*, "He was *in every sense* a man."

(*d*) Between an auxiliary[1] and a principal[1] verb; *e.g.*, "I will, *at any time you may set*, confer with you on this matter."

Interpolated phrase without verb: Long — commas

368. An interpolated[2] adverbial phrase[1] not containing a verb should usually be preceded and followed by a comma if it consists of more than six words.

Right: The inspector, *after three weeks of investigation in the neighborhood*, had found no evidence.

Short — no commas

369. If such a phrase consists of fewer than six words, it should not usually be set off by any points.

Right: The inspector *in a short time* gave his decision.

But see, for exceptions, Rule 300, and Rule 301 with example *g*.

Interpolated phrase with verb, or clause — commas

370. An interpolated[2] adverbial phrase[1] containing a verb, or an interpolated adverbial clause,[1] should be preceded and followed by a comma.

(*a*) Right: Clayson, *by the means I mentioned*, got rid of the fellow.
(*b*) Right: I would give, *if it were necessary*, my whole fortune.
(*c*) Right: He is, *unless I am mistaken*, a Frenchman.
(*d*) Right: They have, *by a method never before practiced*, succeeded in evading the law.

See also the examples under Rule 301.

Grammatical Appositives

Appositive preceding — comma

371. An appositive[1] preceding its principal[1] should be separated from the principal by a comma.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 367.

Right: *A veteran lawyer*, he at once perceived the flaw in the deed.

Appositive following — usually comma or commas

372. An appositive[1] following its principal[1] should in most cases be preceded by a comma; and if it does not close a simple predication[2] (separate or component),[2] it should also be followed by a comma.

(*a*) Right: This is Mrs. Harris, *my colleague*.
(*b*) Right: Mrs. Harris, *my colleague*, is not here at present; but my clerk, *Miss Mills*, will help us.

Omission of second comma

373. Do not omit the necessary comma *after* an interpolated appositive.

WRONG: Madison, the capital of Wisconsin is a pretty city.
Right: Madison, the capital of Wisconsin, is a pretty city.

Appositive announced: Concluding — either dash or colon

374. An appositive[1] that is announced, or prepared for, by the preceding words should be preceded by a dash or a colon, as follows: **375.** If the appositive closes a simple predication[2] (separate or component),[2] either the dash or the colon may be used — the colon preferably in a formal context.

(*a*) Right: I wish to ask about one particular law — the pension law.
(*b*) Right: I wish to ask regarding one particular law — the pension law; and I want a definite answer.
(*c*) Right: There are three causes: poverty, injustice, and indolence.
(*d*) Right: Two things are to be considered: the enactment of the law and the execution of the law; but the gentleman has spoken only of the former.

Interpolated — dash before and after

376. If the appositive does not close a simple predication[2] (separate or component),[2] a dash should be used; and a dash should also follow the appositive.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 238, 241.

Right: I want to ask about one particular law — the pension law — if you have time.

As to the use or non-use of commas with dashes, see Rule 391.

Intervening words — dash or dashes

377. When a number of words intervene between a principal substantive and an unannounced appositive,[1] a **dash** should usually precede the appositive.

(*a*) Right: There was a fellow there who always made himself ridiculous — a clerk named Beckham.

Dash following

378. In such a case a dash should also follow the appositive if the appositive does not close a simple predication[2] (separate or component).[2]

(*a*) Right: I have lost the book I need most — a copy of Smith's *Chemistry* — and also my drawing kit.
(*b*) Right: The one book I need most — a copy of *Henry Esmond* — I seem to have lost.

As to the use or non-use of commas with the dashes, see Rule 391.

Principal implied — dash or dashes

379. An appositive[1] in apposition to a noun implied, not expressed, should be preceded by a dash, and should also be followed by a dash if it does not close a simple predication[2] (separate or component).[2]

(*a*) Right: He had left his fiddle at home — a fact at which I rejoiced.
(*b*) Right: He had left his fiddle at home — a fact at which I rejoiced; and for once he was pretty good company.
(*c*) Right: If he had forgotten his fiddle — a favor he had never done us — and brought the letter, I might have endured him; but he brought the fiddle and forgot the letter. [321.]

As to the use or non-use of commas with the dashes, see Rule 391.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, p. 360 ff.
[2] See 238, 241.

Adjacent commas — dashes or parentheses

380. Any appositive[1] standing in the midst of a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] may be enclosed between dashes or parentheses if a comma precedes the principal,[1] or if a comma is used within the appositive.

Right: I could not get out, the janitor (a careless, absent-minded fellow) having locked the door and gone home.

Right: The daughter of the colonel — a beautiful, clever girl — acted as hostess; and nothing was lacking to make our hero happy.

As to the use or non-use of commas with the dashes, see Rule 391.

Restrictive appositive — no comma

381. An appositive[1] used to distinguish its principal[1] from other persons or things called by the same name should usually not be separated from its principal by punctuation.

(*a*) Right: Collins the poet is not to be confused with Collins the novelist.
(*b*) Right: The poet Patmore is little known in America.
(*c*) Right: The sentence "Come, ye blessed of my Father" occurs in the New Testament.
(*d*) Right: Charles the Bold. Basil the blacksmith. That man Jones. The steamship *Syria*. Milton's poem *Comus*. The adjective *strong*. The expression "Ay, ay, sir."

Restrictive *that*, *how*, *whether*, *who*, and *what* clauses — no comma

382. (*a*) Rule 381 applies particularly to *that* clauses in restrictive[3] apposition[1] to nouns such as *the fact* and *the statement;* and to indirect questions[1] introduced by *how*, *whether*, *who*, and *what*, in restrictive apposition to nouns such as *the question*. Such clauses and indirect questions should not be preceded by a comma.

Right: The fact that it is legal is no excuse.
Right: The question whether it is legal is hard to answer.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 238, 241.
[3] See 334.

(*b*) Rule 381 also applies to substantive clauses in restrictive apposition to the provisional[1] subject *it*.

Right: It seemed certain that the book was lost.

Rhetorical Appositives

Rhetorical appositive — dash or colon

383. A member of a predication, other than a substantive member, having the rhetorical effect of being in apposition[1] with a preceding member, should be preceded by a dash or a colon, as follows: **384.** If the appositive expression closes a simple predication[2] (separate or component),[2] either the dash or the colon may be used — the colon preferably in a formal context.

Concluding — either dash or colon

(*a*) Right: I chose it for two reasons: *because it was cheap, and because it suited my purpose.* [The italicized member is rhetorically in apposition with the adverbial phrase "for two reasons."]

(*b*) Right: He told me of his past life — *of his wild youth, of his career as a pirate, and of his flight to America.* [The italicized phrases are rhetorically in apposition with the adverbial phrase "of his past life."

(*c*) Right: It should be well cared for — *should not be neglected or misused.* [The italicized member is rhetorically in apposition with "should be well cared for."]

(*d*) Right: He spoke in the most approved fashion — *with trilled r's and graceful gestures;* but he didn't win the debate.

Interpolated — dash before and after

385. If the appositive expression does not close a simple predication[2] (separate or component),[2] a dash should be used both before and after.

Right: In an incredibly short time — *in two hours*, to be specific — a telegram came in reply. ["In two hours" is rhetorically in apposition with the adverbial phrase "in an incredibly short time."]

As to the use or non-use of commas with the dashes, see Rule 391.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

[2] See 238, 241.

Rules concerning Grammatical and Rhetorical Appositives in Common

Appositives introduced by *namely, for example*, etc.:

386. When an appositive,[1] either grammatical or rhetorical,[2] is introduced by a parenthetic expression, such as *namely, that is, that is to say, i.e., viz., to wit, for example, for instance, e.g.*, the parenthetic expression should be preceded by a dash or a colon, as follows:

Concluding — either colon or dash

387. If the appositive concludes a simple predication[3] (separate or component),[3] either the dash or the colon may be used — the colon preferably in a formal context.

(*a*) Right: Two of these transactions strike me as fraudulent: namely, the alleged sale of the wreck, and the expenditure of the proceeds for advertising. [374.]
(*b*) Right: Two dances are in use there — namely, the waltz and the highland fling. [374.]
(*c*) Right: Three parties are engaged: namely, the Whigs, the Tories, and the Radicals. [374.]
(*d*) Right: He will be expelled if he commits the slightest irregularity — for instance, if he fails to pay his dues on time. [383.]
(*e*) Right: You will communicate with her in only two cases: *viz.*, (1) if the ward dies, and (2) if the money invested is by some unforeseen disaster lost. [383.]
(*f*) Right: He lost the money through an imprudent investment — namely, by a bet on Scintilla. [383.]

Interpolated — dash before and after

388. If the appositive does not conclude a simple predication[3] (separate or component),[3] the parenthetic expression should be preceded by a dash, and a dash should also follow the appositive.

(*a*) Right: They grace many important occasions — for example, presidential inaugurations — by their distinguished presence and equipage. [376.]
(*b*) Right: He gave a large sum — namely, a thousand dollars — out of pure vainglory. [376.]
(*c*) Right: He fulfilled his contract in time — that is, in sixty days — and received the fee. [385.]

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 383.
[3] See 238, 241.

(*d*) Right: He was called on in urgent cases — for example, when a boat had capsized — to come and direct the crew. [385.]

As to the use or non-use of commas with the dashes, see Rule 391.

389. Note that a comma should follow the parenthetic expression (*namely*, etc.) in every case.

Comma always *after* the parenthetic expression

Right: He gave a large sum: that is, a thousand dollars. [374.]
Right: He gave a large sum — that is, a thousand dollars. [375.]
Right: I need them only occasionally: that is, when an examination is approaching. [383.]
Right: I need them only occasionally — that is, when an examination is approaching. [384.]

390. The expression *that is*, although it is a subject and predicate, is often used in the manner of the adverb *namely*, to introduce an appositive (grammatical or rhetorical). Observe the difference between the predicative and the parenthetic use of *that is*: —

Parenthetic use of *that is*

Predicative: I see a big animal over there. That is your Guernsey bull, I suppose. [Here "that" is distinctly the subject of the predication, and "your Guernsey bull" is the predicate complement of "is."]
Parenthetic: He and I agreed very well in one respect — that is, in our enthusiasm for high-bred cattle. [Here "that" is not distinctly a grammatical subject; and "in our enthusiasm for high-bred cattle" is not the predicate complement of "is," but a rhetorical appositive to "in one respect." "That is" is parenthetic, equivalent to *namely*.]

That is, when used parenthetically before an appositive, should not be capitalized and preceded by a period as if it were the beginning of a new predication. The same rule holds of *that is to say* and *i.e.* (see Rule 143*a*).

Right: My father gave me a splendid birthday present when I was eighteen — that is, a six-cylinder car. ["A six-cylinder car" is not the predicate comple-

ment of "is," but an appositive to "present," the object of "gave"; "that is" is parenthetic, equivalent to *namely*.]

Commas with dashes: When right

391. (*a*) When any appositive,[1] grammatical or rhetorical,[2] is enclosed between dashes according to one of the foregoing rules, and when, if the appositive were omitted, a comma would be required after the preceding word, a comma should precede each dash.

(1) Right: If he had left his fiddle at home, — an unheard-of occurrence, — I could perhaps have endured him. [379, 349.]
(2) Right: If you can do it in a very short time, — in two hours, to be specific, — you may have the job. [385, 349.]
(3) Right: By means of a machine that he had invented, — namely, a sort of grindstone, — he managed to attract attention. [388, 353.]
(4) Right: If an accident occurred, — for instance, if a boat capsized, — he was sent for. [388, 349.]

When wrong

(*b*) But no commas should be used in addition to the dashes unless a comma would be required were the appositive omitted.

Right: The man I told you of a while ago — Harry Skeel, you know — is now a professional ball player. [377.] [In "The man I told you of a while ago is now a professional ball player," no comma is required after "ago."]

Separation of Parenthetic Elements from the Context

Parenthetic defined; *adverbial* distinguished

392. A parenthetic expression is an expression interpolated in a predication or attached to it and not constituting a part of the subject or of the predicate. In "He was *for a long time* sick with a fever," the italicized expression is not a parenthesis, because it is a modifier of "was." In "He was, *I regret to say*, sick with a fever," the italicized expression is a parenthesis, because it has

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 383.

no syntactic[1] connection either with "he" or with "was sick with a fever."

Conjunctive Adverbs

Definition

393. Conjunctive adverbs are adverbs used to introduce a whole predication rather than to modify adverbially any one member. The chief conjunctive adverbs are *accordingly, also, besides, further, furthermore, hence, however, indeed, moreover, nevertheless, otherwise, so, still, then, therefore, thus, yet.* These are used also as pure adverbs.[2] Their use as pure adverbs, and their use as conjunctive adverbs must be clearly distinguished, for when used as pure adverbs, they are not governed by the following rules, but by Rule 344.

Distinguished from pure adverbs

Introductory conjunctive adverbs

Subject immediately following — no comma after *so, therefore,* etc.

394. The conjunctive adverbs *so, therefore, hence, yet, nevertheless, moreover, accordingly, thus, then, otherwise,* when they stand at the beginning of a simple predication[3] (separate or component)[3] and are followed immediately by the subject, should not usually be followed by a comma.

(*a*) Right: Therefore the United States may well be cautious.
(*b*) Right: Nevertheless we had better hang together; otherwise we may hang separately.
(*c*) Right: It is a time of danger, and therefore the United States may well be cautious.
(*d*) Right: That is true; but nevertheless we had better hang together, for otherwise we may hang separately.

Comma always after *however* and *besides*

395. But the conjunctive adverbs *however* and *besides* standing at the beginning of a predication should always be followed by a comma.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 343. [3] See 238, 241.

(*a*) **NOT IMMEDIATELY CLEAR**: Besides his reasoning is bad.
Right: Besides, his reasoning is bad.
(*b*) **NOT IMMEDIATELY CLEAR**: However he reasoned her into his view.
Right: However, he reasoned her into his view.
(*c*) Right: It was too dark for anybody to see us; and besides, two of our men were keeping watch.

Subject not immediately following — comma

396. A conjunctive adverb[1] standing at the beginning of a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] and not followed immediately by the subject should be followed by a comma if the subject is preceded by one.

(*a*) Right: Therefore, when all was ready, I cranked the car.
(*b*) Right: I was perfectly sure now; and therefore, when all was ready, I cranked the car.

No separation from preceding *and* or *but*

397. A conjunctive adverb[1] standing at the beginning of a predication should not usually be separated by a comma from a preceding *and* or *but*.

(*a*) Right: And besides, I have a more decisive reason.
(*b*) Right: But nevertheless, if need arises, I will be ready.

Separation from any other conjunction

398. But such a conjunctive adverb should be separated by a comma from any other conjunction[3] that precedes.

(*a*) Right: If, moreover, it is as you say . . .
(*b*) Right: When, therefore, the debt is paid . . .
(*c*) Right: . . . and because, also, the tariff is prohibitive.

Concluding — comma before

399. A conjunctive adverb[1] standing at the end of a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should be preceded by a comma.

(*a*) Right: He is in want of money, however.
(*b*) Right: He is happy, though.
(*c*) Right: We shipped the goods, nevertheless, and he received them.

[1] See 393. [2] See 238, 241.
[3] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

(*d*) Right: Where did he go, then? [That is, "Where did he go, that being the case?" "Where did he go then?" would mean "Where did he go at that time?" The punctuation shows whether "then" is to be construed as a modifier of the whole predication or as a modifier of "go." See Rule 344.]

400. A conjunctive adverb[1] standing in the midst of a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should be enclosed between commas. Interpolated — two commas

(*a*) Right: He is, moreover, a man of wealth.
(*b*) Right: He is, however, in want of ready money.
(*c*) Right: He is, besides, in poor health.

401. Do not omit the necessary comma *after* an interpolated conjunctive adverb. Omission of second comma

WRONG: I will not, however withdraw my name.
Right: I will not, however, withdraw my name.

Parenthetic Phrases in General

402. The reader is again cautioned to distinguish clearly between parenthetic phrases and adverbial phrases, for the following rules do not apply to adverbial phrases. See Rules 345 and 392 for the distinction between the two kinds of phrases. Parenthetic phrases distinguished from adverbial

Among expressions governed by the following rules, are to be noticed particularly parenthetic phrases indicating the character or the connection of a predication — for example, *in the second place, in conclusion, of course, to be specific, to tell the truth, to illustrate, for instance, for example, as a natural result, as to the legality of the measure, as for the last argument, that is, in other words, at any rate, on the other hand, on the contrary, in fact.*

403. A parenthetic phrase[3] standing at the beginning of a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should be followed by a comma. Introductory parenthetic phrase: Comma after

[1] See 393. [2] See 238, 241. [3] See 345, 392.

Right: For example, last year an election was held.

Separation from preceding conjunction, except *and* or *but*

404. Such a phrase should also be separated by a comma from any preceding conjunction[1] except, usually, *and* or *but* (but see Rule 409).

(*a*) Right: If, for example, an election is held . . .
(*b*) Right: . . . for, to tell the truth, I take no interest in it.
(*c*) Right: . . . but to tell the truth, I take no interest in it.
(*d*) Right: And in the second place, we must consider . . .
(*e*) Right: Nor, in the third place, are we to forget . . .

Concluding—comma before

405. A parenthetic phrase[2] standing at the end of a simple predication[3] (separate or component)[3] should be preceded by a comma.

(*a*) Right: I wish to thank you for this, in the second place.
(*b*) Right: I saw the harbor of Nice, for example.
(*c*) Right: He is uncomplimentary, to say the least.
(*d*) Right: He is uncomplimentary, to say the least; and I might even call him rude.

Interpolated—two commas

406. A parenthetic phrase[2] standing in the midst of a simple predication[3] (separate or component)[3] should be enclosed between commas.

(*a*) Right: I wish, in the second place, to ask you this.
(*b*) Right: I saw, for instance, the harbor of Nice.
(*c*) Right: He is, to say the least, uncomplimentary.
(*d*) Right: I wish to ask, in the third place, the following question, and you will please answer it with candor: did he ever, so far as you know, express an interest in Miss Carew? [262.]

Omission of second comma

407. Do not omit the necessary comma *after* an interpolated parenthetic phrase.

WRONG: He conducted himself, to tell the truth very deceitfully.
Right: He conducted himself, to tell the truth, very deceitfully.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, p. 360 ff.
[2] See 345, 392. [3] See 238, 241.

Absolute Phrases

408. An absolute phrase[1] introducing a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should be followed by a comma. Introductory absolute phrase: Comma after

Right: *The wind being fresh*, we made good speed.

Right: *The fire having now increased to an alarming degree*, reënforcements were sent for.

409. Such an absolute phrase should also be separated by a comma from *any* preceding conjunction. If such a phrase is not separated from a preceding conjunction, the absolute substantive will in nearly every case be mistaken for a subject. (Cf. Rule 299.) Separation from *any* preceding conjunction

Right: The firemen soon came; but, *the wind being high*, they could not arrest the fire.

410. An absolute phrase[1] standing at the end of a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should be preceded by a comma. Concluding absolute phrase — comma before

(*a*) Right: We made good speed, *the wind being fresh*.

(*b*) Right: I don't want to buy, *things being as they are*. [299.]

(*c*) Right: We made good speed, *the wind being fresh*, and we walked along full fourteen knots.

(*d*) Right: I don't want to buy, *things being as they are;* but I'll tell you what I'll do: I'll advise Boyd to buy. [262.]

411. An absolute phrase[1] in the midst of a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should be enclosed between commas. Interpolated absolute phrase — two commas

(*a*) Right: He sat for a long time, *his eyes fixed on the fire*, and pondered the dilemma; but there seemed to be no solution.

(*b*) Right: We decided, *the wind being fresh*, to sail at once.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

[2] See 238, 241.

Omission of second comma

412. Do not omit the necessary comma *after* an interpolated absolute phrase.

BAD: We decided, all preparations being complete to move on the next day.
Right: We decided, all preparations being complete, to move on the next day.

Wrong comma after absolute substantive

413. An absolute[1] substantive should never be separated from its participle[1] by a comma.

MISLEADING: We threw overboard a good part of the cargo, and the ship, being much lighter, we thought the danger was past.

Right: We threw overboard a good part of the cargo, and, the ship being much lighter, we thought the danger was past. [409.]

Parenthetic Predications

Short parenthetic predications

414. A short declarative predication[2] of thinking, saying, hearing, etc. (*e.g., I think, I believe, it is said, I have heard, he asserts, I repeat*), used parenthetically[3] at the end of a simple predication[4] (separate or component),[4] should be preceded by a comma.

Concluding — comma before

Right: This is Mr. Rowe, I believe.
Right: He is a good pianist, I have heard; but I never heard him play.

Interpolated — two commas

415. Such a predication standing in the midst of a simple predication[4] (separate or component)[4] should usually be enclosed between commas.

Right: This is, I believe, Mr. Rowe.
Right: There is much to learn, we have been told, from uneducated people, but for my part, give me a duke or a college president.

Omission of second comma

416. Do not omit the necessary comma *after* an interpolated predication of the kind just mentioned.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 236 ff. [3] See 392. [4] See 238, 241.

BAD: This is, I think a lot worth owning. [299.]
Right: This is, I think, a lot worth owning.

417. Such a predication interpolated in a relative clause[1] may be written without being set off by commas. Exception — relative clauses

(*a*) Right: The man who I thought was dead suddenly confronted me.
(*b*) Right: Magill, whose poems I supposed were original, now appears to have plagiarized.
(*c*) Right: Paxton, where they said the scenery was sublime, disappointed my expectations.

418. When a short predication of thinking or saying stands at the beginning of a predication, it is not parenthetic;[2] *e.g.*, in "I think this is Mr. Rowe," "I" is the main subject, and "this is Mr. Rowe" is a substantive clause,[1] the object of "think." (Cf. Rule 455.) Introductory *I think*, etc., not parenthetic

419. A parenthetic[2] interrogative predication asking for confirmation or assent should be preceded by a comma and followed by a question mark when it stands at the end of another simple predication[3] (separate or component).[3] Confirmation or assent: Concluding — comma after

Right: You are the engineer, aren't you?
Right: Hand me that fiddle, will you?

Virtual Predications

Right: *Cool day*, isn't it?
Right: *Clever work*, don't you think so?

420. Such a parenthetic interrogative predication should be enclosed between dashes or parentheses when it stands in the midst of another simple predication[3] (separate or component);[3] it should be followed by a question mark. Interpolated — dashes or parentheses

Right: He is — is he not?— a German. [289.]
Right: He ought to take his ease (don't you agree with me?) and do nothing but read novels. [289.]

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, p. 360 ff.
[2] See 392. [3] See 238, 241.

Other parenthetic predications

Concluding — dash or parentheses

421. An independent predication other than those mentioned in Rules 414–420 which is appended to a simple predication[1] (separate or component)[1] should be preceded by a dash or enclosed between parentheses.

(*a*) Right: He is a refugee from the Baltic Provinces — he told me so himself.
(*b*) Right: I predict his defeat, judging by all appearances (I mean really judging — not merely conjecturing).
(*c*) Right: He is a refugee from Russia — he told me so himself; but one would hardly suspect it.
(*d*) Right: I think he will be defeated (I really think so, using my best judgment), but don't tell him I said so.

No comma with dash

Other marks with parentheses

422. If the dash is used in such a case, it should be used alone — without any other point. **423.** If parentheses are used, one point, and only one, should be used in addition — namely, the point which, if the parenthetic matter were omitted, would follow the preceding word; and this point should be placed after the second parenthesis mark — not elsewhere. See, for instance, the preceding examples, and also the following:

(*a*) Right: I will ask him by telephone (I suppose he has a telephone); and I think he will consent.
(*b*) Right: He spoke as follows (I quote literally): "My friends, I have come . . . "

Interpolated — dashes or parentheses

424. An independent predication other than those mentioned in Rules 414–420 which is used parenthetically in the midst of a simple predication[1] (separate or component)[1] should be enclosed between parentheses or dashes.

Right: I judge by appearances (I mean I really judge; I don't merely conjecture) that he will be defeated.
Right: I judge by appearances — I mean I really judge; I don't merely conjecture — that he will be defeated.

[1] See 238, 241.

425. If parentheses are used in such a case, the point or points which, if the parenthetic predication were omitted, would be required after the preceding word should be placed after the second parenthesis — not elsewhere. Other marks with parentheses:

Right: If you should see him (you might chance to meet him on the train), give him my message. [349.] When to be used and how
Right: He gave me a beautiful souvenir (he considered it beautiful, at any rate) — namely, a silver-plated mug. [387.]

426. But no point should be used in addition to the parentheses unless it would be required were the parenthetic predication omitted.

WRONG: I will meet him (I give you my word of honor I will), and give him your message. [In the predication "I will meet him and give him your message," no comma is required after "him."] When not to be used
Right: I will meet him (I give you my word of honor I will) and give him your message.

427. When dashes are used in such a case, and when, if the parenthetic predication were omitted, a comma would be required after the preceding word, a comma should precede each dash. Commas with dashes: When used

Right: When the paper is finished, — that will doubtless be in March, — bring it to me. [349.]
Right: If you should see him, — you might meet him on the train, — give him my message. [349.]

428. But no comma should be used if it would not be required were the parenthetic predication omitted. When not

Right: He took my hat — it was a green Alpine — and my overcoat.

Vocatives

429. A vocative[1] introducing a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should be followed by a comma, or (rarely) by an exclamation mark. Vocatives: Introductory — comma after

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 238, 241.

Right: *John*, come here.
Right: I understand all that; but *John*, you haven't explained why you locked the door.
Right: *My poor child!* what have they done to you?

Separation from preceding conjunctions, except *and* or *but*

430. Such a vocative should be separated by a comma from any preceding conjunction [1] except *and* and *but*.

Right: If, *John*, you do as I say, I will give you a cigar.
Right: But *mother*, what's the use?
Right: I am not to blame; for, *my dear fellow*, how was I to know?

Concluding — comma before

431. A vocative [1] concluding a simple predication [2] (separate or component) [2] should be preceded by a comma.

Right: Come here, *John*.
Right: What have they done to you, *you poor child*?

Interpolated — two commas usually

432. A vocative [1] standing in the midst of a simple predication [2] (simple or component) [2] should be enclosed between commas;

Right: I command you, *John*, to come here; and I intend, *my boy*, that you shall obey.

or (rarely) should be preceded by a comma and followed by an exclamation mark.

Right: Sing, *O Muse!* the wrath of Achilles.

Omission of second point

433. Do not omit the necessary point *after* an interpolated vocative.

WRONG: I fear, my dear boy that you are losing your grip.
Right: I fear, my dear boy, that you are losing your grip.

Salutation of letter: Colon

434. A vocative forming the salutation of a letter should be followed by a colon if the letter is formal;

Right: My dear sir:
Right: Gentlemen:

Comma

by a comma if the letter is not formal.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 238, 241.

Right: Dear Jack,
Right: My dear Mrs. Jones,

435. A vocative introducing a public speech may be followed by a colon or a comma — a comma preferably if the speech is informal. Salutation of a speech — Colon — Comma

Right: Ladies and gentlemen: . . .
Right: Mr. Chairman: . . .
Right: Brothers of Alph' Alpha, again we meet . . .

Interjections and Expletives

436. An interjection[1] or a parenthetic expletive[1] introducing a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should usually be followed by a comma or an exclamation mark, according to whether the writer wishes it to appear slightly, or decidedly, exclamatory. (For exceptions to this rule, see Rule 92.) Introductory interjection or expletive — comma or exclamation mark

Right: "Had dinner?" — "Alas, no."
Right: Alas! thy glory is departed!
Right: He looked prosperous enough, but oh, how old he seemed!

437. Rule 436 applies to *yes* and *no* used *as expletives;*[1] *e.g.,* Expletive *yes* and *no* — comma

Right: "Have you found it?" — "Yes, I have."
Right: "Give it to me." — "No, I will not."

438. But it must be remembered that *yes* and *no* are often used as virtual complete independent predications;[3] in that case they should be followed by the period or the semicolon. Complete independent predications (virtual) — end mark

WRONG: "Have you found it?" — "Yes, it was hard work, though."
Right: "Yes. It was hard work, though." [258.]
WRONG: "Give it to me." — "No, why should I?"
Right: "No. Why should I?" [258.]

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 238, 241. [3] See 244.

Omission of point after *well, why, now.*

439. It is an objectionable fault to write the expletives[1] *well, why,* and *now* with no separative mark following (see Rule 299).

(*a*) **BAD**: Why my notes have disappeared. [299.]
Right: Why, my notes have disappeared.
(*b*) **BAD**: Well may I see it? [299.]
Right: Well, may I see it?

Separation from preceding conjunctions, except *and* and *but*

440. An interjection[1] or a parenthetic expletive[1] introducing a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should usually be separated by a comma from any preceding conjunction[1] except *and* and *but.*

Right: I will try; though, alas, I fear I shall fail.
Right: But alas! how fallen . . .
Right: And hurrah! here's a boat.

Concluding interjection or expletive — comma before

441. An interjection[1] or a parenthetic expletive[1] concluding a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should be preceded by a comma.

Right: He has gone, alas!
Right: He has gone, alas; but he may not have gone far.

Interpolated—two commas or comma and exclamation mark

442. An interjection[1] or a parenthetic expletive[1] standing in the midst of a simple predication[2] (separate or component)[2] should be enclosed between two commas or between a comma and an exclamation mark.

Right: He has gone, alas, to Coney Island.
Right: We are, alas! less wise than we think we are.

Omission of second point

443. Do not omit the necessary point *after* an interpolated interjection or expletive.

BAD: Your crocodiles, now are hatched by the sun, I suppose.
Right: Your crocodiles, now, are hatched by the sun, I suppose.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 238, 241

Geographical Names

444. A geographical name locating a place or region named immediately before should be separated from the context by a comma or commas. Geographical name — comma or commas

(*a*) Right: Madison, Wisconsin, is a pretty town.
(*b*) Right: I live in Madison, Wisconsin.

445. Do not omit the necessary comma *after* an interpolated name of the kind just mentioned. Omission of second comma

BAD: I was born in Milwaukee, Wisconsin in 1884.
Right: I was born in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, in 1884.

Time Expressions

446. (*a*) The number of a year defining a month or a day named immediately before should be separated from the context by a comma or commas. Time expressions — comma or commas:

(1) Right: I returned in May, 1908. Year date
(2) Right: In May, 1908, I returned.
(3) Right: On May 14, 1908, I returned.

(*b*) The same rule applies to a month date defining a week day. Month date

(1) Right: I went on Tuesday, May 12.
(2) Right: On Wednesday, May 13, I returned.
(3) Right: On Friday, February 13, 1909, the firm collapsed.

447. Do not omit the necessary comma *after* an interpolated time expression. Omission of second comma

BAD: On March 16, 1902 we landed.
Right: On March 16, 1902, we landed.

Interrupted Structure

448. When a predication is broken off and not completed, the break should be marked by a dash. Structure completely broken off — dash

Right: Now we come to the — Oh, there is one thing I must mention first.

Syntactic substitute — dash

449. When a member of a predication is substituted for a preceding expression or series of expressions, so that that expression or series is left without grammatical construction,[1] the substituted member should be preceded by a dash.

Right: I wonder whether the men he has robbed, cheated, and driven to desperation — whether these will forgive him.

Other points with the dash:

450. When the substitute sums up a series of coördinate[1] expressions, the same mark (either the comma or the semicolon) which separates the members of the series should be placed before the dash.

Comma

(*a*) Right: The rattle of musketry, the clash of swords, the thunder of the cannonade, — these were the sounds he loved to hear.

Semicolon

(*b*) Right: If you go to bed with the lamb and rise with the lark, as the proverb expresses it; never loiter or trifle; always employ your time, whether you are so inclined or not, in some praiseworthy manner; — if you do all this, you will probably not be asked to join the Nu Pi fraternity.

Faltering speech — dash

451. In the representation of hesitating or faltering utterance, a repeated member of a predication should be preceded by a dash;

Right: "I — I have done you — have done you a wrong," she faltered.

and places where the speaker hesitates but does not repeat are often indicated likewise.

Right: "Tell — tell the boy — I'm still — thinking — thinking of him," he managed to say, and then fell back in a sort of — swoon.

Superfluous Interior Punctuation

Superfluous commas

452. Commas should not be used at places where there is no reason for using them.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

In general

BAD: I would be selling groceries, at one minute, and dry goods, at the next. At times, it was very hard, for me, to keep my temper. One does not know, what the life of a clerk is, until one has tried it.

Right: I would be selling groceries at one minute and dry goods at the next. At times it was very hard for me to keep my temper. One does not know what the life of a clerk is until one has tried it.

After relative pronoun

453. A comma should not be used after a relative pronoun[1] standing in the midst of its clause.[1]

BAD: He gave me an interesting puzzle, the solution of which, helped to pass the time.

Right: He gave me an interesting puzzle, the solution of which helped to pass the time. [336.]

Before *that*, *how*, *whether*, *who*, *what*, and *which* clauses

454. (*a*) A verb having as its object or predicate complement a substantive clause[1] should not be separated from that clause by a comma. This rule applies particularly to verbs of saying, hearing, or thinking, governing clauses introduced by *that*, *how*, *whether*, *who*, *what*, and *which*. (Cf. Rule 382.)

Object

(1) Right: He told us that the boat was ready.
(2) Right: I do not know how it occurred.
(3) Right: Do you know whether it is ready?
(4) Right: I know perfectly well who the man is; and I know precisely what he wants.
(5) Right: My first thought was that the man was mad.

Adverbial substantive

(*b*) A verb or an adjective modified by a substantive clause in the construction of an adverbial substantive should not be separated from the clause by a comma. (Cf. Rule 382.)

(1) Right: I was astonished that the boat was ready.
(2) Right: Are you sure that the boat is ready?
(3) Right: I was ignorant how it occurred.
(4) Right: Are you aware who he is?

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

[2] See *Adverbial substantive* and also *Substantive clause* in the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

That omitted

455. Rule 454 applies also to substantive clause from which the conjunction *that* is colloquially omitted (Cf. Rule 418.)

(*a*) *Clauses objects of verbs* (454 *a*)

(1) Right: I said he was my brother.
(2) Right: I have heard she is a good cook.
(3) Right: I think you are mistaken.

(*b*) *Clauses adverbially modifying verbs or adjectives* (454 *b*)

(1) Right: I am sure he is an anarchist.
(2) Right: I am sorry it has gone.
(3) Right: I am astonished he hasn't come yet.

Before compound relative *what*

Within *what* clause

456. The compound relative[1] pronoun *what* should not be separated by a comma from a verb or preposition governing[1] it, or from a verb of which it is the predicate substantive.[1] **457.** Nor should a comma be used without good reason inside a clause[1] introduced by the compound relative *what*.

(*a*) Right: He showed me what I supposed was a sponge.
(*b*) Right: He is what may be called a charlatan.
(*c*) Right: She pointed to what seemed to be bears' tracks.

Before result *that* clause

458. A result clause[1] introduced by *that* should not be separated by a comma from the element it modifies.[1] (Cf. Rule 358.)

Right: The darkness was so intense that one could almost feel it. [358.]

After *that*

459. The conjunction[1] *that* should not be separated by a comma from the clause[1] it introduces.

(*a*) **BAD**: The inspector reported that, the machinery was out of order.
Right: The inspector reported that the machinery was out of order.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

b) **BAD**: We stopped awhile in order that, our horses might be refreshed.
Right: We stopped awhile in order that our horses might be refreshed.

460. A comma should rarely be used after *and*. (Cf. rules 355, 397, 404, 430, 440.) After *and*

a) **BAD**: The twig began to bend and, suddenly it broke in two in the middle.
Right: The twig began to bend, and suddenly it broke in two in the middle. [317.]
b) **BAD**: Take some blankets and, by all means an overcoat.
Right: Take some blankets and by all means an overcoat. [320.]

but see Rule 409.

461. A noun or pronoun[1] should not be separated from a following intensive[1] by a comma. Before *myself*, etc.

Right: I myself saw it.
Right: The prince himself was present.

462. No mark of punctuation should be placed before the first member of a series of coördinate[1] elements if no mark would be required before a single element in the place of the series. Superfluous points before series

a) Right: During the first year I studied Latin, Greek, and history.
b) Right: It is valuable (1) to the student, (2) to the statesman, (3) to the merchant.

The Cardinal Error of Interior Punctuation

463. The Period Fault. — The worst error of interior punctuation is to put a period before a group of words that is not an independent predication,[2] but the concluding member of one, and to capitalize such a group as if it were a new independent predication. The period fault

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 242.

This error arises in the treatment of many kinds of syntactic elements — among them the following:

With appositives

464. Appositives. — An appositive[1] following its principal[1] should not be capitalized and set off by a period.

BAD: Among her suitors were two she favored most. One a college graduate of small means, the other a rich capitalist.

Right: Among her suitors were two she favored most, — one a college graduate of small means, the other a rich capitalist. [374, 377.]

With participles

465. Participial Phrases. — A participial phrase[1] following its principal[1] should not be capitalized and set off by a period.

BAD: It offers a course for those who wish to study art. At the same time affording opportunity for literary study.

Right: It offers a course for those who wish to study art, at the same time affording opportunity for literary study. [337.]

With absolute phrases

466. Absolute Phrases. — An absolute[1] phrase closing a predication[2] should not be capitalized and set off by a period.

BAD: The passage should be divided into two paragraphs. The first comprising lines 1–16 and the second comprising lines 17–30.

Right: The passage should be divided into two paragraphs, the first comprising lines 1–16, and the second comprising lines 17–30. [410.]

With dependent clauses

467. Dependent Clauses. — A dependent clause[1] following its principal[1] should not be capitalized and set off by a period.

BAD: The care of oil lamps requires every day some untidy and disagreeable labor. While electric lights give the housekeeper no trouble.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 236 ff.

Right: The care of oil lamps requires every day some untidy and disagreeable labor, while electric lights give the housekeeper no trouble. [359.]

MATTERS CONCERNING BOTH INTERIOR AND END PUNCTUATION

Separative Punctuation with Direct Quotations

He said preceding — comma usually

468. A verb of saying or thinking having as its object [1] a direct quotation,[1] and preceding the quotation, should usually be separated from the quotation by a comma.

Right: He said in a whisper, "Don't speak."
Right: Holding out his hand he said, "Give me that letter."

Exception

469. But a verb of saying or thinking followed immediately by a quotation of only one or two words, which does not close the containing predication, need not be followed by a comma.

Right: He cried "Fire!" and began to run.

Quoted fragment incorporated — no comma

470. Directly quoted words incorporated in an original predication [2] and not introduced by a verb of saying or thinking should not be preceded by any mark of separative punctuation unless such mark would be required were the words the author's own. It is a mistake to suppose that *every* direct quotation should be preceded by a comma. (Cf. Rule 211.)

WRONG: They ate, "the fruit of that forbidden tree."
Right: They ate "the fruit of that forbidden tree."
BAD: He has the greatest contempt for, "gold-brick men," as he calls them.
Right: He has the greatest contempt for "gold-brick men," as he calls them.
BAD: It fills a, "long-felt want."
Right: It fills a "long-felt want."

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. [2] See 236 ff.

Colon before extended quotation

471. A verb of saying introducing a passage of several paragraphs should be followed by a colon; see the example under Rule 501.

Said he interpolated: *Said he* excluded

472. When an expression like *said he* is interpolated within a quotation or placed after it, the following rules apply (473–479): **473.** The *said he* should be preceded by a terminal[1] quotation mark and followed by an initial[1] quotation mark.

Right: "If that is true," he said, "I am lost."

Points before *said he:* Question mark Exclamation mark Comma

474. The quoted words preceding the *said he* should be followed by a question or exclamation mark if they form a complete independent interrogative or exclamative predication;[2] otherwise by a comma; never by a period or semicolon.

Right: "Will you help?" he asked.
Right: "Help!" he cried.
Right: "I will help," he said.
Right: "I will help you," he said; "you deserve it."

Points after *said he:* Period or semicolon if predication is complete Comma fault by violation

475. If the quoted words preceding the *said he* would be followed, but for the *said he*, by a period or a semicolon, a period or a semicolon should follow the *said he*. In such a case, to put a comma after the *said he* is to commit the comma fault (see Rule 293).

BAD (comma fault): "Look in my eyes," she said, "where is my five-pound note?"
Right: "Look in my eyes," she said. "Where is my five-pound note?"
BAD (comma fault): "I don't know," he answered lamely, "truly, I haven't seen it."
Right: "I don't know," he answered lamely. "Truly, I haven't seen it."
Right: "I don't know," he answered lamely; "truly, I haven't seen it." [276.]

[1] See 230. [2] See 243.

476. If the quoted words preceding the *said he* are followed (according to Rule 474) by a question or exclamation mark, a period should follow the *said he*. Period if question or exclamation mark precedes *said he*

Right: "Won't you come?" she said. "We need you."

477. In every case in which a period or semicolon is not required (according to Rules 575 and 576) after the *said he*, a comma should follow the *said he*. Comma if predication is not complete

Right: "I am," growled the assassin, "your doomsman."

478. The *said he* should not be capitalized. *Said he* not capitalized

Right: "Go to the treasury," said the king, "and help yourself."

479. The part of the quotation following the *said he* should not be capitalized unless it is a new predication. Wrong capital after *said he*

Right: "Hammer on the window," advised the policeman, "until he gets up."

The Dash Fault

480. Dashes should not be used indiscriminately where periods, colons, semicolons, commas, question marks, and exclamation marks properly belong. The use of this makeshift argues ignorance of the principles of punctuation. (Cf. Rule 525.) Indiscriminate use of dash

Points Beginning Lines

481. A period, a comma, a colon, a semicolon, an exclamation mark, a question mark, or a hyphen should never be placed at the beginning of a line. A dash, however, may stand at the beginning of a line. Points at beginning of a line

DESIGNATIVE PUNCTUATION

The Possessive Case[1]

Possessive singular: Regular Nouns in *s*

482. In the possessive[2] singular[2] of a noun, an apostrophe should precede the inflectional[2] *s*; *e.g.*, "the boy's cap." **483.** The possessive[2] singular[2] of a noun ending in *s* is formed by adding *'s* or by adding simply an apostrophe.

WRONG: Dicken's novels. Burn's poems.
Right: Dickens' novels, or Dickens's novels. Burns' poems, or Burns's poems.
Right: Charles's horse. Mr. Jones's house.

Possessive plural

484. In the possessive[2] plural[2] of a noun of which the nominative[2] plural ends in *s*, an apostrophe should follow the final *s*; *e.g.*, "the boys' caps." **485.** In the possessive plural of other nouns, an apostrophe should precede the final *s*; *e.g.*, *men's*, *women's*, *children's*, *oxen's*.

Hers, *yours*, etc. *Its*

486. In the possessives *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, and *its* there should be no apostrophe. **487.** Rule 486 is very often violated with the possessive *its*. The expression *it's* is proper only as a contraction of *it is*.

One's, *ones'*

488. The possessive[2] singular[2] of *one* should be written *one's* and the possessive plural *ones'*.

The Plural of Letters and Symbols

Plurals in *'s*

489. The plural[2] of letters of the alphabet and of numerical symbols is formed by adding *'s* to the letter or symbol. The plural of a word considered *as a word*, or a group of words considered as a group of words, may also be formed in the same way.

[1] See Exercises 739–744.

[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff. See particularly the tables under *Substantive*.

Right: There are three *A's*, four *B's*, seventeen *s's*, and a good many *but's* on this page. [224.]
Right: Your "I will's" and your "I will not's" sound very magisterial. [224.]

490. But the regular plural of a noun should never be formed by adding *'s*. *Piano, Perry, Rogers*, for instance, form the plurals *pianos, Perrys, Rogerses* (see Rules 75, 76). Incorrect use of *'s*

Abbreviations

491. A period should be used after an abbreviated word or a single or double initial letter representing a word; as *etc., viz., Mrs., i.e., e.g., LL.D., pp.* Period following

492. The abbreviation of a plural[1] word sometimes consists of the initial letter doubled; for instance, *LL.* for *laws*, *pp.* for *pages*, *ff.* for *following* (*pages, lines, etc.*), *ll.* for *lines*. In such an abbreviation the two letters should not be separated by a period. *LL.D.* etc.

A BLUNDER: L.L.D.
Right: LL.D.

Contractions

493. In a contracted word an apostrophe should stand in the place of the omitted letter or letters, not elsewhere. Position of apostrophe

WRONG: Hav'nt, do'nt, does'nt, ca'nt, is'nt.
Right: Have n't, don't, does n't, can't, is n't.

494. The apostrophe should not be omitted from *o'clock*. *O'clock*

495. But the preposition[1] or conjunction[1] *till* and the preposition or adverb[1] *round* are not contractions and should not be preceded by an apostrophe. *Till* and *round*

Right: Wait till I come.
Right: Wrap it round your wrist.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Compound Words

The designation of compound words by the hyphen is, for convenience, treated in Rules 102–124.

Word-Breaking

The indication by the hyphen that a word is divided at the end of a line is, for convenience, treated in Rules 173–183.

Direct Quotations[1]

For direct, not indirect, quotations

496. Quotation marks should enclose direct[2] quotations, but not indirect[2] quotations.

WRONG: He said, "that he was grieved."
Right: He said that he was grieved. [454*a*.]
Right: He said, "I am grieved." [468.]

I say, etc. — mistaken quotation marks

497. An original statement introduced or emphasized by *I say, let me say, I reply, I declare, I ask,* or an analogous expression, is not a quotation, and should not be enclosed between quotation marks.

WRONG: Let me say at once, "The expense is large."
Right: Let me say at once the expense is large. [455*a*.]

Misuse within a quotation

498. Immediately consecutive sentences of a quotation should never be enclosed in separate pairs of quotation marks.

BAD: She said, "Is this the truth?" "Then I must tell my husband." "He ought to know."
Right: She said, "Is this the truth? Then I must tell my husband. He ought to know." [468.]

Omission

499. Do not fail to put quotation marks at the beginning and at the end of every direct quotation.

[1] See Exercises 745–749, 753.
[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

500. A quotation within a quotation should be marked by single quotation marks; one within that by double marks. Quotation within a quotation

WRONG: "Then," continued Brightman, "the captain shouted, "Cast off!"

Right: "Then," continued Brightman, "the captain shouted, 'Cast off!'"

WRONG: I repeated those lines of Tennyson

> "Thou shalt hear the "Never, never," whispered by the phantom years,
> And a song from out the distance in the ringing of thine ears"

until I knew them by heart.

Right: I repeated those lines of Tennyson

> "Thou shalt hear the 'Never, never,' whispered by the phantom years,
> And a song from out the distance in the ringing of thine ears"

until I knew them by heart.

501. In a quotation that consists of several paragraphs, quotation marks should be placed at the beginning of each paragraph, but not at the end of any paragraph except the last. Quotation of several paragraphs

Right:

> Apropos of the point under discussion, allow me to quote from an article by Professor Starr in a recent number of the *Red Book*. Professor Starr says:
>
> "Lippert recognizes two types of dress, to which he gives the names of Northern and Southern. They differ from each other markedly.
>
> "The Southern type of dress is directly developed from the shoulder cape and waist skirt. Its idea is covering and decoration; it presents soft fabrics draped gracefully upon the body. In its full development it presents flowing jackets with wide sleeves and ample skirts, simple or divided. It is to-day the dress of northern Africa, of Turkey, India, Persia, China, and Japan.
>
> "The Northern type of dress embodies as its chief idea convenience and practicality; the ornamental origin is lost sight of; it includes the skin clothing of the Eskimos, and the protective idea is evident. Its

forms are due to the tight tying of skins or stuffs around the different portions of the body. Its typical forms are close-fitting jackets and trousers."

Relative position of question or exclamation mark:

502. When a quotation mark and a question or exclamation mark both follow the same word, (*a*) the question or exclamation mark should stand first if it applies to the quotation and not to the predication containing the quotation;

Quotation mark outside

Right: He said, "Are you sure?"

Inside

(*b*) the quotation mark should stand first if the other mark applies, not to the quotation, but to the predication containing the quotation;

Right: Did the letter contain the expression "downy squabs"? [381.]
Right: Will he say, "Come and rest awhile"?

No third point

(*c*) no comma or period or colon or semicolon should be used in addition to the quotation mark and the question or exclamation mark.

WRONG: He cried "Fire!", and the people were scared.
Right: He cried "Fire!" and the people were scared.
WRONG: He called, "What cheer?".
Right: He called, "What cheer?"

Question or exclamation marks not to be doubled

503. A quotation mark should not be both preceded and followed by a question or an exclamation mark, nor should it be preceded by the one mark and followed by the other. When such punctuation might logically be used, the mark that would precede the quotation mark should be dispensed with.

Logical but **NOT PERMISSIBLE**: Did he ask, "What is the price?"?
Right: Did he ask, "What is the price"?
Logical but **NOT PERMISSIBLE**: How absurd of you to ask, "Where am I?"!
Right: How absurd of you to ask, "Where am I"!

504. When a word is followed by a quotation mark and a period or a comma besides, the period or the comma should always precede the quotation mark. Period or comma always inside

Right: "If you have a light," said John, "give it to me."
Right: He asked me for what he called a "light," but I had none.

505. When a word is followed by a quotation mark and a semicolon or a colon besides, the semicolon or the colon should always follow the quotation mark. Colon or semicolon always outside

Right: I have seen that "abode of poverty"; and the "poverty" is truly marvelous.
Right: I have this to say regarding the man's "abject poverty": that it is fictitious. [374.]

Interpolation in Quoted Matter

506. Words enclosed in parenthesis marks ( ), occurring in a quotation, are understood to belong to the quotation; words enclosed in brackets [ ] are understood to be interpolated by the writer quoting. Brackets

Right: It was in Faneuil Hall in 1826 that Webster said, "They [Adams and Jefferson] are no more. They are dead. But how little is there of the great and good which can die!"

507. In narrative, however, an interpolation made by the writer in quoted matter is ordinarily best designated by a terminal[1] quotation mark at the left and an initial[1] quotation mark at the right, thus: Terminal and initial quotation marks

Right: "Adam," he said, "leave the room." [473.]
Right: My uncle continued, "You bet your life" (he meant *most assuredly*) "he will go when I tell him to. By the great Magunn" (he meant *the great mogul*, I suppose), "if he refuses, I'll disinherit him!"

[1] See 230.

Technical Terms

Unfamiliar terms — quotation marks

508. Quotation marks may be used to enclose a technical term presumably unfamiliar to the reader.

Right: The next process is the "driving" of the logs downstream.

Right: *Nevertheless* should always be written "solid." [224.]

Familiar — no marks

509. No such marking is needed for technical or quasi-technical terms that are perfectly familiar to the reader. None is ordinarily needed, for instance, for *wire-puller, boss, off year, touch-down, kick-off, haze, corner the market.*

Rhetorical Effects

Apology

Slang and nicknames

510. Quotation marks are sometimes used to indicate apology for slang or nicknames. But note: **511.** *No* such apology should be made for expressions that are not slang, such as *hard hit, brace up, rough it, to duck, to oust, to loaf, to cut a figure, the why's and wherefore's, the forties, willy nilly, day dreams, proxy, bugbear, humbug, hoax, tomfoolery, bamboozle, whoop, ninny, milksop, skinflint, parson;* or for names that are not nicknames, such as *Ben Jonson, Mrs. Jack Gardner;* or for nicknames by which the bearers are called oftener than by their regular names, such as *Tom Platt, Tom Johnson, Jim Corbett.* **512.** In a humorous context such apology should not be made; it is out of place, and an annoyance to the reader.

Good English mistaken for slang

Proper names mistaken for nicknames

Humorous context — no marks

INARTISTIC: When radicalism "threw up its hat" for "Rob" Rowland, "rough-house," and reform, conservatism "took to the tall timbers." "Rob," though "cock of the walk" in the capital, has been "sassed" by his home paper, which attributes his influence to hypnotism and "hot air."

Improved in effectiveness: When radicalism threw up its hat for Rob Rowland, rough-house, and reform, conservatism took to the tall timbers. Rob, though cock of the walk in the capital, has been sassed by his home paper, which attributes his influence to hypnotism and hot air.

513. In a colloquial context such apology should not be made; it is in such a case an affectation. Colloquial context — no marks

OBJECTIONABLE: I was warned not to "cut" any more classes or "flunk" in any more recitations.
Right: I was warned not to cut any more classes or flunk in any more recitations.

514. In a quoted speech slang and nicknames should not be enclosed between single quotation marks. Falsely ascribed apology

ABSURD: "I am afraid, 'Tom,' that you're 'stung,'" said Jack cheerfully.
Right: "I am afraid, Tom, that you're stung," said Jack cheerfully.
BAD: "I object," said Lorimer, "to this 'skin game' you are trying to 'hand' me."
Right: "I object," said Lorimer, "to this skin game you are trying to hand me."

Diminished Prominence

515. A complete independent predication, closed by a period and not used parenthetically,[1] may be included between parentheses, in order that it may be made less prominent. Whole sentence — parentheses **516.** In such a case the period should precede the second parenthesis mark. Position of period

Right: I cannot speak here of reason and will. (These subjects will be treated in later chapters.) Let us confine ourselves for the present to attention.

517. Any modifier,[2] any parenthetic[1] element, and any expression consisting of a pure coördinating con- Member of a predication — parentheses

[1] See 392. [2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

junction[1] and the element it introduces, may be enclosed between parentheses, in order that it may be made less prominent.

Right: They sent young Stacy (who, of course, was quite inexperienced) and meanwhile tried to temporize.
Right: He opened the window and (there being no other means of escape) jumped to the ground.
Right: Let every man (and every woman, too, for that matter) endeavor to make this a cleaner city.

Additional points: When used, and how

518. In such a case, the point which, if the parenthesized matter were omitted, would be required after the preceding word should be placed after the second parenthesis mark.

Right: Although he has had no experience in this work (or, indeed, in any other work), you propose him as manager! [349.]
Right: I oppose him because he has had no experience in this work (or any other work).

When not used

519. But no point should be used in addition to the parentheses unless it would be required were the parenthesized matter omitted.

WRONG: The sheriff gave him (as his oath required), the most effective help. [The predication "The sheriff gave him the most effective help" requires no comma after "him."]
Right: The sheriff gave him (as his oath required) the most effective help.

Afterthought

Interpolated member — two dashes

520. Any modifier,[2] any parenthetic[3] element, or any expression consisting of a pure coördinating conjunction[1] and the element it introduces, may, if it stands in the midst of a predication, be enclosed between dashes in order to produce the rhetorical effect of afterthought.

[1] See 237. [2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[3] See 392.

Right: He practiced his profession — not very successfully — for two years.
Right: Oh yes; I'm interested — more or less — in pastels.
Right: I have never — to tell the truth — read any of your novels.
Right: He lectured Harry — and incidentally me — on the sin of robbing birds' nests.

Commas with dashes: When used

521. When a predication contains matter enclosed thus between dashes, and when, if such matter were omitted, a comma would be required after the preceding word, a comma should precede each dash.

Right: When he had practiced his profession for two years, — not very successfully, — he decided to give it up. [349.]
Right: He tried to open the window, — no other escape being available, — but it stuck. [318.]

When not

522. But no comma should be used in addition to the dashes unless one would be required were the matter set off by the dashes omitted.

WRONG: He practiced his profession, — not very successfully, — in St. Louis. [In "He practiced his profession in St. Louis," no comma is required after "profession."]
Right: He practiced his profession — not very successfully — in St. Louis.

Final member — dash

523. Any modifier,[1] any parenthetic[2] element, or any expression consisting of a pure coördinating conjunction[3] and the element it introduces, may, when it stands at the end of a predication, be preceded by a dash in order to produce the rhetorical effect of afterthought.

No comma

524. In such a case no comma should precede the dash.

(*a*) Right: He may have signed it — though I would rather die than believe he did.
(*b*) Right: He sent his love to all the family — and asked for more money.

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[2] See 392.
[3] See 237.

(*c*) Right: It is a good thing to ask few questions — especially about other people's money matters.
(*d*) Right: Most emphatically I say they should be discharged at once — the case of Burns being, perhaps, reserved for further consideration.

Abuse of the device

525. This use of the dash is sometimes improperly extended to new complete independent predications [1] which express afterthought. Note that it applies properly only to *the concluding member* of a predication.

WRONG: They should be discharged at once — the case of Burns, perhaps, may be reserved. [480.]
Right: They should be discharged at once. The case of Burns, perhaps, may be reserved. [258.]

Pause

Pause denoted by dash

526. Any word or group of words concluding a predication may be preceded by a dash in order to produce the rhetorical effect of pause.

Right: And from all this hardship we gain — what?

527. As was said above (see Rule 451), hesitation or faltering may be shown by the dash.

Wonder or Mirth

Wonder or mirth denoted by exclamation mark

528. An interjection [2] in any position, a vocative [2] in any position, any expression enclosed between dashes or parentheses, and any independent declarative or imperative predication (actual or virtual) [3] may be followed by an exclamation point to indicate that it is uttered with emotion of some sort — particularly astonishment or mirth. (Cf. Rules 279, 429, 432, 436, 442.)

Right: And Mamie — the only lady there, mind you! — was as grave as a judge.

[1] See 243.
[2] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.
[3] See 242–244.

Right: The only doctor we could find (namely, the village horse doctor!) pronounced it a case of *angina pectoris*.

Inquiry

529. In an interrogative predication any member may be followed by a question mark to indicate insistent or eager inquiry. (Cf. Rule 208.)

Eager inquiry denoted by repeated question mark

Right: Have you pistols? shot? powder?
Right: Who took it? and where has he taken it?

530. As has been already noticed (see Rule 287), a predication declarative in form but interrogative in sense may be designated as interrogative by the question mark.

Conjecture

531. The fact that a statement — particularly of a date — is conjectural may be indicated by a parenthesized question mark.

Conjecture denoted by question mark

Right: These events occurred in 411 B.C. (?)

532. But the use of a parenthesized question mark as a notice of humor or irony is a puerility. (Cf. Rules 227, 533 *f.*)

Abuse of the device

BAD: After his polite (?) remarks we have nothing more to say.
Right: After his polite remarks we have nothing more to say.

Sundry Errors of Designative Punctuation

533. Quotation marks should not be used (*a*) to enclose the title at the head of a composition unless the title is a quotation; (*b*) to enclose proper names,[1] including names of animals.

Misuses of quotation marks: Heading Proper names

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

WRONG: I expect to go to "Ober-Ammergau."
Right: I expect to go to Ober-Ammergau.
WRONG: "Thomas" and "Rover" were good friends.
Right: Thomas and Rover were good friends.

Letters and symbols

(*c*) to enclose letters and symbols that are not quoted;

WRONG: He makes a figure "2" like the letter "z."
Right: He makes a figure *2* like the letter *z*.

Coined words

(*d*) to enclose words coined *extempore*;

WRONG: The manning and "womaning" of the enterprise will be difficult.
Right: The manning and womaning of the enterprise will be difficult.
WRONG: It is not bronchitis or peritonitis or any of the "itises."
Right: It is not bronchitis or peritonitis or any of the itises.

Proverbial phrases

(*e*) to enclose proverbial phrases;

WRONG: He seemed to be "as mad as a March hare."
Right: He seemed to be as mad as a March hare.
WRONG: It was "nipped in the bud."
Right: It was nipped in the bud.

Labeling humor

(*f*) to serve the undignified and inartistic purpose of labeling one's own humor or irony (cf. Rules 227, 532);

BAD: Such is the ardor of this "pious" Hotspur.
Right: Such is the ardor of this pious Hotspur.
BAD: Senator Platt's speech on the bill was a sort of "funeral oration."
Right: Senator Platt's speech on the bill was a sort of funeral oration.

No reason at all

(*g*) for no reason at all.

BAD: If the Creator in his "power and munificence" is good to me, I shall gain "distinguished success."
Right: If the Creator in his power and munificence is good to me, I shall gain distinguished success.

Misuses of parentheses and brackets: Emphasis

534. Neither parentheses nor brackets should be used (*a*) to emphasize a word (see Rules 216, 226);

BAD: "The man (who) they thought was dead surprised them" is correct.
Right: "The man *who* they thought was dead surprised them" is correct.

(*b*) to enclose a word about which something is said as a word (see Rules 216, 224); — Words discussed

WRONG: (Party) is often incorrectly used for (person).
Right: *Party* is often incorrectly used for *person*.

(*c*) to indicate the title of a book (see Rules 216, 217); — Literary titles

WRONG: Garland's story (*Among the Corn Rows*) is pathetic.
Right: Garland's story *Among the Corn Rows* is pathetic.

(*d*) to enclose a letter, number, or symbol which is not used parenthetically; — Letters and symbols

BAD: A (v) shaped plate of steel.
Right: A *v*-shaped plate of steel.
BAD: It is marked with the figure (2).
Right: It is marked with the figure *2*.

535. The first of a pair of quotation marks, parentheses, or brackets should never be placed at the end of a line. — Initial quotation mark, parenthesis, or bracket at end of line

BAD: He stepped up to me and said gruffly, "You are wanted."
Right: He stepped up to me and said gruffly, "You are wanted."
BAD: . . . . . The twelve o'clock whistles (they were usually late) at last began to blow.
Right: . . . . . The twelve o'clock whistles (they were usually late) at last began to blow.

PARAGRAPHING

Introduction: The Meaning of the Term *Thought-component*[1]

536. Before the rules for paragraphing are given, it is necessary to explain a term frequently used in those rules. This is the term *thought-component.*

Every composition a series of passages distinct in topic

A composition of any kind on any subject necessarily discusses a number of different topics which form divisions of the main subject. An essay on George Washington will necessarily discuss several topics that form divisions of the subject *George Washington* — such topics as these:

Washington's early life
His military career
His political career
His personal character

Again, an essay on the smaller subject *The Personal Character of Washington* will necessarily discuss topics falling under *this* subject — for example,

His dignity
His pride
His sense of humor
His piety

Again, an essay on *The Dignity of Washington* will necessarily discuss several topics falling under *this* subject — for example,

His dignity of speech
The dignity of his literary style
His dignity of bearing
His breaches of dignity

[1] See Exercises 750–752.

A composition explaining the game of baseball will necessarily discuss several topics falling under the main subject — for example,

The field
The apparatus
The stations of the players
The method of play

A composition giving an account of a picnic will necessarily deal with several topics — for example,

The meeting of the party
The journey to the ground
The dinner
The games

An editorial on an athletic victory will necessarily deal with several topics — for example,

Brief summary of the game
Special praise for Flaherty's end run
Hopes suggested by the victory

Every composition is thus made up of a series of passages, each distinct in topic from what precedes and follows. These passages may consist of one sentence, of two or three sentences, or of an indefinite number of sentences. Such passages will hereafter be called thought-components.

A component is a part. The components of a pair of scissors are the right blade, the left blade, and the rivet. To analyze a thing is to observe or point out its components. Many things can be analyzed in several different ways — or, to use a common term, can be analyzed on several different bases. The population of a certain city, analyzed on the basis of its individuals, is made up of fifty thousand components; analyzed on the basis of sex, it is made up of two components; analyzed on the basis of nationality, it is made up of six components; analyzed on the basis of religious sects, it is made up of eight components. Likewise a composition may be

Analysis on different bases

analyzed on several different bases. A certain composition on Queen Elizabeth, if analyzed on the basis of single words, consists of 749 components; if analyzed on the basis of printed lines, it consists of 82 components; if analyzed on the basis of sentences, it consists of 29 components. If analyzed on the basis of the ideas expressed by its various parts, it consists of three components — *viz.*, three passages dealing respectively with Elizabeth's character as a woman, her character as a ruler, and her popularity with her subjects. These three components are called thought-components; they are the components that appear from an analysis on the basis of thought.

Analysis on the basis of thought

Method of analyzing a composition into thought-components

The method of determining what are the several thought-components of a composition will be shown by an analysis of two compositions. Let the reader keep clearly in mind what a thought-component is — a passage distinct in topic from what precedes and follows.

Consider the following composition:

MY SCISSORS

The little pair of blunt-ended scissors that lies on my table I bought at Macy's nine years ago, for — Heavens! has the price stuck in my memory? — twenty-eight cents. I used them first, I remember, for clipping from the New York *Sun* items about the Boer War, the daily reports of which I thought would make interesting reading at some future time. I carefully deposited my daily African budget in an accordion file for about three weeks. Then I reflected, "Oh, what's the use? If I ever want to review these events" (I haven't, by the way), "I can find a summary of them through Poole's Index, or a detailed history of them in the nearest Carnegie Library; I may as well spare my scissors all this friction." So I ceased to clip the *Sun*. Since that time my scissors have served principally for cutting the cord on packages sent to me, or for trimming the knots of the cord wherewith I fastened packages sent

to other people. They have mutilated few newspapers since the abdication of Oom Paul the First. I wonder where the little engine was made. Ah, here is the answer stamped in the metal: "H. K. Morley & Sons, Germany." So you were made in Germany, were you? How do you like America? How do you like lying idle, as you do most of the time, on a green cloth in a foreign land?

Method of analyzing a composition into thought-components

In reading this composition we see that from the beginning to line 20 the writer is telling about the history of the scissors since his purchase of them; and we see that, beginning with the words "I wonder" in line 20, he is discussing a new topic, — the place where the scissors were made, — and is making remarks suggested by this topic. The passage from the beginning to "Paul the First" in line 20 is, therefore, a thought-component — *i.e.*, a passage distinct in topic from what follows; and the passage from "I wonder" in line 20 to the end is a thought-component — a passage distinct in topic from what precedes. These two passages are the main thought-components.

Within these main thought-components there are subordinate ones. The first sentence deals with the purchase of the scissors; this topic is not continued in the second sentence; therefore the first sentence is a separate thought-component. The second sentence deals with the use to which the scissors were first put; this topic is continued to the words "clip the *Sun*" in line 15, but is not continued farther; therefore the passage from "I used" in line 4 to "clip the *Sun*" in line 15 is a separate thought-component. Proceeding through the composition in this way, we get the following analysis:

I. History of the scissors since their purchase (lines 1–20)
   1. Purchase (lines 1–4)
   2. Early use (lines 4–15)
   3. Later use (lines 15–20)

II. Place of manufacture (line 20–end)
   1. Ascertainment (lines 20–23)
   2. Remarks suggested by ascertainment (line 23–end)

Method of analyzing a composition into thought-components

Consider, second, the following composition, the speech made by Abraham Lincoln at the dedication of the National Cemetery at Gettysburg:

LINCOLN'S GETTYSBURG ADDRESS

Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We have come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here, but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they who fought here have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us; that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain, that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people shall not perish from the earth.

Up to the words "It is altogether fitting" in line 10, Lincoln is stating the historical connection of the dedication of the Gettysburg cemetery; it is the dedication, he says, of a cemetery for soldiers who died defending a nation which was consecrated from its birth to a noble principle, and which is now threatened with destruction. With the words "It is altogether fitting" he begins to deal with a new topic; he is no longer stating the historical connection

of the dedication; he is estimating its worthiness; this topic is continued to the end of the speech. The composition thus has two main thought-components: the first is the passage from the beginning to "live" in line 10; the second is the remainder of the composition. Within the first main component there are no distinct sub-components. Within the second main component, however, there are two distinct sub-components. These are sufficiently indicated by the following analysis:

Method of analyzing a composition into thought-components

I. The dedication in its historical connection (lines 1–10)
II. Estimate of the worthiness of the dedication (line 10–end)
  1. Decorousness of the act (the sentence "It . . . this," lines 10–11)
  2. Its unimportance ("But" in line 11–end)
    a. Unimportance in comparison with the deeds of the dead soldiers ("But" in line 11; "here" in line 17)
    b. Unimportance in comparison with a larger duty ("It" in line 17–end)

If it is now clear what the term *thought-component* means, we may proceed to the rules for paragraphing.

THE FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLE[1]

The fundamental principle stated

537. The fundamental principle of paragraphing is this: a passage consisting of the whole of a single thought-component which it is advantageous to present with particular distinctness should be embodied in a separate paragraph.

Illustrations

For example, if an essay of 400 words on the qualifications for success as an army officer consists of two thought-components, the first dealing with inherent qualities and the second with qualities produced by training and study, this essay should be written as two paragraphs. If an autobiography 600 words long treats these subjects:

[1] See Exercises 750–752.

Early years on the farm
Life and education in the city from the sixth to the sixteenth year
Experience as a machinist from the seventeenth to the twentieth year
Resumption of education; college life to the date of writing

this composition should be written as four paragraphs. A criticism, 300 words long, of American newspapers, dealing with

Substance
Style

should be written as two paragraphs. In an essay of 1000 words on the art of trapping, constructed thus:

I. General principles
II. Particular methods for certain animals
  1. Bears
  2. Wolves and foxes
  3. Minks

parts I, II 1, II 2, and II 3 should be embodied each in a separate paragraph. An essay of 300 words on the manufacture of barrel staves, discussing —

Providing material
Process of manufacture

should consist of two paragraphs. If a story tells —

(*m*) How the hero went to the bank and what he did there
(*n*) What was happening meanwhile at the hero's factory

parts *m* and *n* should be embodied in two separate paragraphs.

Paragraphing compared to punctuation

Paragraphing, when employed according to the rule stated above, does, in a measure, the same thing for a whole composition that punctuation does for a predication. In the predication "He went to the drug store to get some medicine for his little brother Rob was very sick," there are two coördinate clauses. This fact one perceives without the assistance of punctuation after mis-

reading the predication and rereading it. If the predication is properly punctuated, thus: "He went to the drug store to get some medicine, for his little brother Rob was very sick," the reader knows immediately, as he reads, that it consists of two clauses, the comma showing him where the first ends and the second begins. Now, read through the following composition, printed without paragraphing:

Paragraphing compared to punctuation

MILITARY DRILL IN THE UNIVERSITY

I have found, since my coming to the University, that a great many of the students are opposed to the taking of military drill, believing that it does them no good whatever. It seems to me, however, that, would they but view the question fairly and thoroughly, they would not regard this enforced exercise as worthless to them; I believe that there could be no doubt in the mind of one who had carefully studied the situation that military drill is a source of real benefit to the student — even to him who is entirely out of sympathy with it. By means of it the ear is trained to serve the movements of the body; the mind is quickened to act precisely and alertly, and to govern the movements of the feet and hands in grace and ease; the drooping shoulders are straightened; the shuffling feet are raised to tread strongly and manfully in recognition of their proper function; and the soul is taught a great lesson, the lesson of submission to just authority. It is quite generally conceded that war is abominable, and that universal peace is desirable. But the world has not yet reached that stage in its development when armies are no longer necessary to protect a country's rights, when the sword may be beaten into the plowshare, and the discordant sounds of war may give place to the gentle sounds of universal and everlasting peace. As long as this is true, the state has need of strong, resolute, well-trained men, on whom reliance may be placed in time of need. It is doubtless with this fact in view that the government furnishes instruction and drill in military tactics in our colleges. The drill does produce (at least in great degree) such men, and in so doing makes some provision for a possible future crisis in the life of our nation.

Paragraphing compared to punctuation

How many main thought-components are there in this essay? Where does any one of them end and the following one begin? These questions an attentive reader can answer by careful analysis. But it would evidently be an advantage to indicate *to the eye* where one thought-component ends and the following begins, so that the reader may distinguish the several thought-components immediately, as he reads. This advantage is furnished by embodying each main component in a separate paragraph thus:

> I have found, since my coming to the University, that a great many of the students are opposed to the taking of military drill, believing that it does them no good whatever. It seems to me, however, that, would they but view the question fairly and thoroughly, they would not regard this enforced exercise as worthless to them; I believe that there could be no doubt in the mind of one who had carefully studied the situation that military drill is a source of real benefit to the student — even to him who is entirely out of sympathy with it. By means of it the ear is trained to serve the movements of the body; the mind is quickened to act precisely and alertly, and to govern the movements of the feet and hands in grace and ease; the drooping shoulders are straightened; the shuffling feet are raised to tread strongly and manfully in recognition of their proper function; and the soul is taught a great lesson, the lesson of submission to just authority.
>
> It is quite generally conceded that war is abominable, and that universal peace is desirable. But the world has not yet reached that stage in its development when armies are no longer necessary to protect a country's rights, when the sword may be beaten into the plowshare, and the discordant sounds of war may give place to the gentle sounds of universal and everlasting peace. As long as this is true, the state has need of strong, resolute, well-trained men, on whom reliance may be placed in time of need. It is doubtless with this fact in view that the government furnishes instruction and drill in military tactics in our colleges. The drill does produce (at least in great degree) such men, and in so doing makes some provision for a possible future crisis in the life of our nation.

Thus, as punctuation helps the reader by making the structure of a predication more easily apparent, so paragraphing helps him by making the structure of a composition more easily apparent.

538. From the fundamental principle of paragraphing as stated in Section 537, it follows that, in order that a composition be well paragraphed, two conditions must be fulfilled:

The two conditions of good paragraphing

First, every paragraph must embody the whole of a single thought-component.

Second, every paragraph must embody a thought-component which it is advantageous to present with particular distinctness.

The nature of these two conditions will now be illustrated; afterwards the two conditions will be restated and explained in detail.

Let us consider what should be the paragraphing of an essay on Queen Elizabeth constructed as follows:

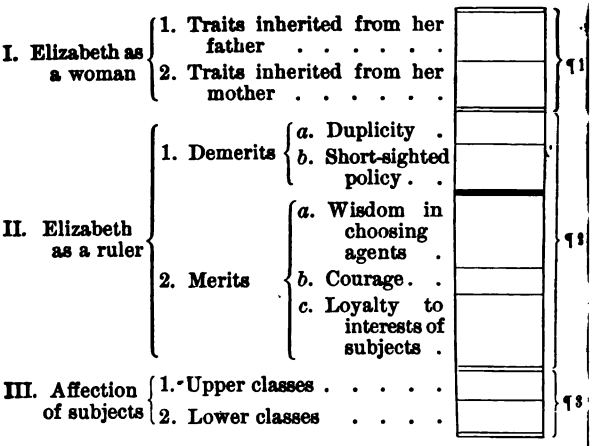
Illustrations

I. Elizabeth as a woman
   1. Traits inherited from her father
   2. Traits inherited from her mother
II. Elizabeth as a ruler
   1. Demerits
      a. Duplicity
      b. Short-sighted policy
   2. Merits
      a. Wisdom in choosing agents
      b. Courage
      c. Loyalty to interests of subjects
III. Affection of her subjects for her
   1. Upper classes
   2. Lower classes

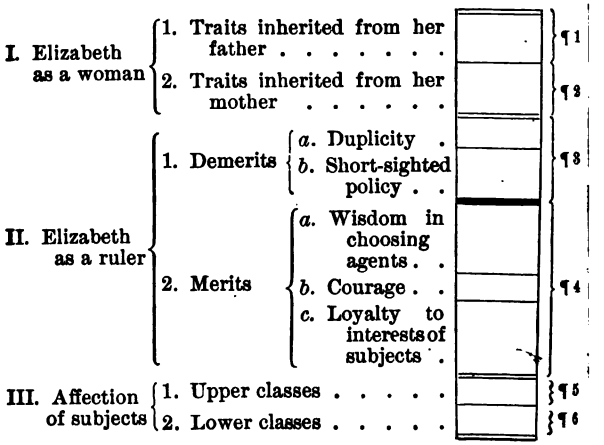
Various ways of fulfilling the first condition of good paragraphing

a. The first condition of good paragraphing — that every paragraph embody the whole of a single thought-component — can be fulfilled in various ways in the writing of this essay. For example, each paragraph would embody the whole of a single thought-component if the essay were divided into three paragraphs, thus:

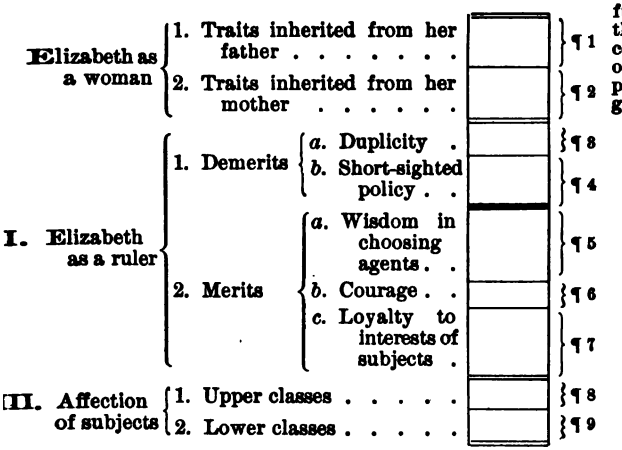
Various ways of fulfilling the first condition of good paragraphing



But each paragraph would embody the whole of a single thought-component if the essay were divided into six paragraphs, thus:

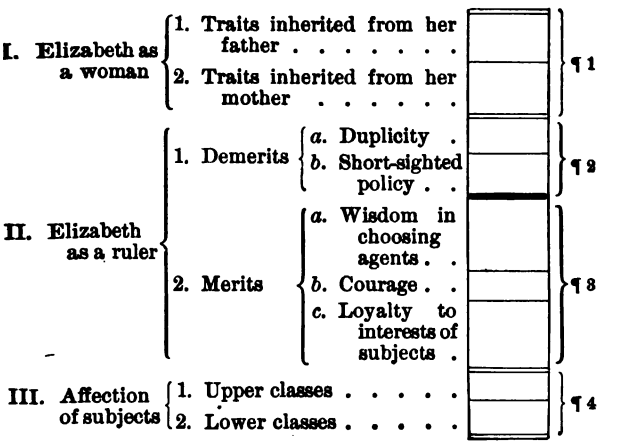


if it were divided into nine paragraphs, thus:


Elizabeth as a woman
1. Traits inherited from her father . . . . . ¶ 1
2. Traits inherited from her mother . . . . . ¶ 2
I. Elizabeth as a ruler
1. Demerits
a. Duplicity . ¶ 3
b. Short-sighted policy . . ¶ 4
2. Merits
a. Wisdom in choosing agents . . ¶ 5
b. Courage . . ¶ 6
c. Loyalty to interests of subjects . ¶ 7
III. Affection of subjects
1. Upper classes . . . . . ¶ 8
2. Lower classes . . . . . ¶ 9

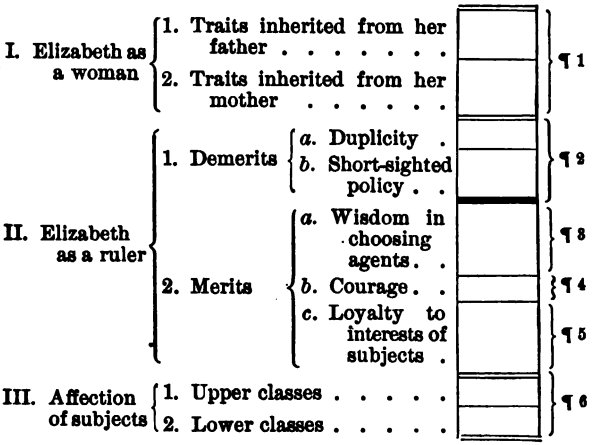
Various ways of fulfilling the first condition of good paragraphing

or if it were divided into four paragraphs, thus:


I. Elizabeth as a woman
1. Traits inherited from her father . . . . . ¶ 1
2. Traits inherited from her mother . . . . . ¶ 1
II. Elizabeth as a ruler
1. Demerits
a. Duplicity . ¶ 2
b. Short-sighted policy . . ¶ 2
2. Merits
a. Wisdom in choosing agents . . ¶ 3
b. Courage . . ¶ 3
c. Loyalty to interests of subjects . ¶ 3
III. Affection of subjects
1. Upper classes . . . . . ¶ 4
2. Lower classes . . . . . ¶ 4

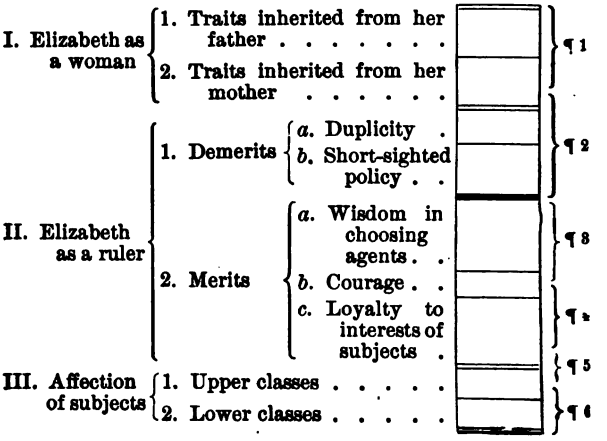
Various ways of fulfilling the first condition of good paragraphing

or if it were divided into six paragraphs, thus:


I. Elizabeth as a woman
1. Traits inherited from her father . . . . . ¶ 1
2. Traits inherited from her mother . . . . . ¶ 1
II. Elizabeth as a ruler
1. Demerits
a. Duplicity . ¶ 2
b. Short-sighted policy . . ¶ 2
2. Merits
a. Wisdom in choosing agents . . ¶ 3
b. Courage . . ¶ 4
c. Loyalty to interests of subjects . ¶ 5
III. Affection of subjects
1. Upper classes . . . . . ¶ 6
2. Lower classes . . . . . ¶ 6

Methods that do not fulfill the first condition

Several other methods would comply with the first condition. On the other hand, many methods would violate that condition; for instance:

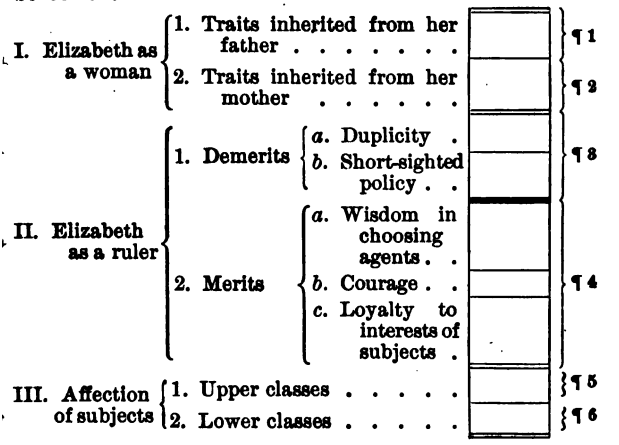

I. Elizabeth as a woman
1. Traits inherited from her father . . . . . ¶ 1
2. Traits inherited from her mother . . . . . ¶ 1
II. Elizabeth as a ruler
1. Demerits
a. Duplicity . ¶ 2
b. Short-sighted policy . . ¶ 2
2. Merits
a. Wisdom in choosing agents . . ¶ 3
b. Courage . . ¶ 4
c. Loyalty to interests of subjects . ¶ 5
III. Affection of subjects
1. Upper classes . . . . . ¶ 6
2. Lower classes . . . . . ¶ 6

b. It remains to choose, from among the various plans which fulfill the first condition, the one which fulfills the second — that is, the one which is most advantageous. This choice depends partly on the length of the several thought-components, and partly on the writer's purpose. Suppose the three main components were of the following lengths:

Fulfillment of the second condition of good paragraphing

I. Elizabeth as a woman	500 words
II. Elizabeth as a ruler	600 words
III. Affection of her subjects	400 words

In this case it would not be advantageous to embody each main component in a single paragraph, for the paragraphs would be too long; the following plan would be better:


I. Elizabeth as a woman
1. Traits inherited from her father . . . . . ¶ 1
2. Traits inherited from her mother . . . . . ¶ 2
II. Elizabeth as a ruler
1. Demerits
a. Duplicity . ¶ 3
b. Short-sighted policy . .
2. Merits
a. Wisdom in choosing agents . . ¶ 4
b. Courage . .
c. Loyalty to interests of subjects .
III. Affection of subjects
1. Upper classes . . . . . ¶ 5
2. Lower classes . . . . . ¶ 6

But suppose the three main components were of the following lengths:

I. Elizabeth as a woman	30 words
II. Elizabeth as a ruler	70 words
III. Affection of her subjects	20 words

Fulfillment of the second condition of good paragraphing

In this case it would not be advantageous to embody each main component in a separate paragraph, for the paragraphs would be too short and scrappy; it would be better to write the essay (120 words in all) as a single paragraph. Suppose the three main components were of the following lengths:

I. Elizabeth as a woman	170 words
II. Elizabeth as a ruler	200 words
III. Affection of her subjects	150 words

In this case, to embody each main component in a single paragraph would probably be the most advantageous plan. This conclusion, however, might be modified by the writer's purpose. If, for instance, the writer wished to distinguish sharply the good from the bad side of Elizabeth's character as a ruler, the following plan would be better:

I. Elizabeth as a woman . . . . . ¶1

II. Elizabeth as a ruler
- 1. Demerits . . . ¶2
- 2. Merits . . . . ¶3

III. Affection of her subjects . . . . . ¶4

Again, suppose the third main component were 300 words long. Whether it should in that case be written as one paragraph or as two depends on the writer's purpose. If he wished the thought-component dealing with Elizabeth's popularity to make a single comprehensive impression, his purpose would be best served by writing the whole component in one paragraph. If he wished to give particular distinctness to the two aspects of her popularity, he had better write the component as two paragraphs.

THE CANON OF UNITY

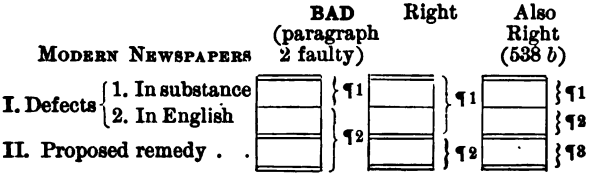
The Canon of Unity stated

539. A paragraph should embody the whole of a single thought-component. This may be called the Canon of Paragraph Unity. From it are deduced the following rules:

UNITING OF CONSECUTIVE COMPONENTS

Consecutive components not forming a larger component

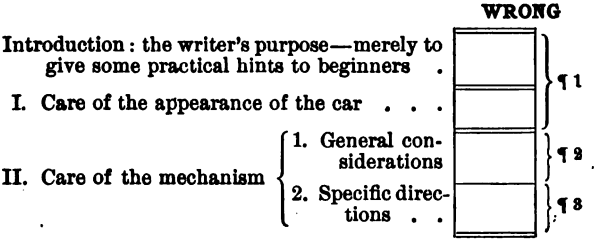
540. A paragraph should not be made to embody two consecutive thought-components unless both constitute a larger component, or unless both make up the whole composition. For example:



The Introduction to a Composition

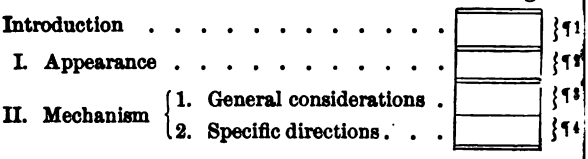
Introduction to a whole composition

541. A passage of one or more sentences that serves as an introduction to a whole composition consisting of several paragraphs should be paragraphed separately. If such a passage is made part of the first paragraph of the main body of the composition, that paragraph will thereby violate the Canon of Unity (539), and moreover the passage will seem to be an introduction to that paragraph only, not to the whole composition. For example, if an essay on the care of a motor car is paragraphed thus:



paragraph 1 violates the Canon of Unity, since it consists of two consecutive thought-components which do

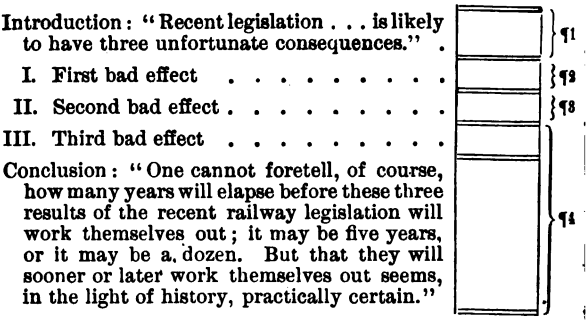
not constitute one larger component. The composition should be paragraphed thus:



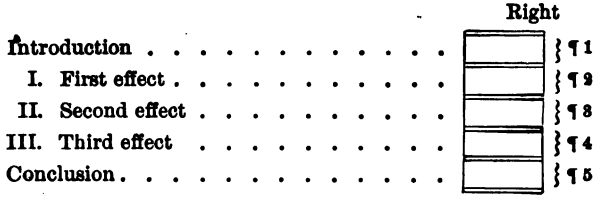
The Conclusion to a Composition

Conclusion to a whole composition

542. A passage of one or more sentences that serves as a conclusion to a whole composition consisting of several paragraphs should be paragraphed separately. If such a passage is made part of the last paragraph of the main body of the composition, that paragraph will thereby violate the Canon of Unity (539), and moreover the passage will seem to be a conclusion to that paragraph only, not to the whole composition. For example, if an essay on the probable bad effects of recent state legislation affecting railway rates is paragraphed thus:


WRONG
Introduction: "Recent legislation . . . is likely to have three unfortunate consequences." . ¶1
I. First bad effect . . . . . ¶2
II. Second bad effect . . . . . ¶3
III. Third bad effect . . . . . ¶4
Conclusion: "One cannot foretell, of course, how many years will elapse before these three results of the recent railway legislation will work themselves out; it may be five years, or it may be a dozen. But that they will sooner or later work themselves out seems, in the light of history, practically certain."

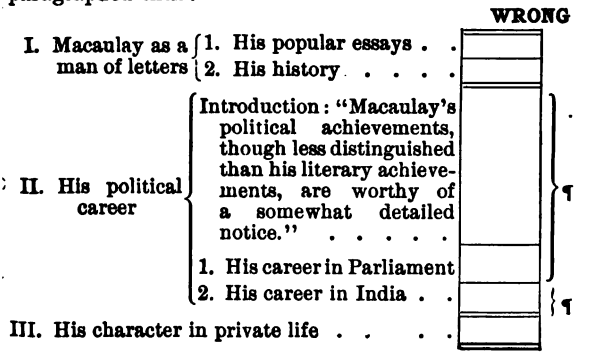
the last paragraph will violate the Canon of Unity. The essay should be paragraphed thus:



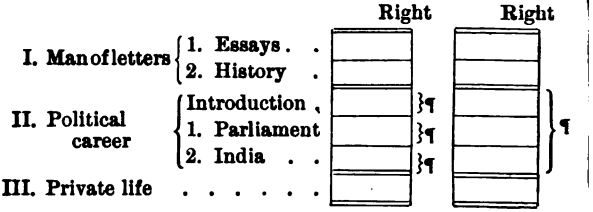
The Introduction to a Long Thought-component

Introduction to a component of several paragraphs

543. A passage of one or more sentences serving as an introduction to a whole thought-component consisting of more than one paragraph should be paragraphed separately. If such a passage is made part of the first paragraph of the thought-component, that paragraph will thereby violate the Canon of Unity (539), and moreover the passage will seem to be an introduction to that paragraph only, not to the whole group of paragraphs making up the component. If, however, the paragraphing is changed so that the main body of the thought-component occupies a single paragraph, the introductory passage may be included in that paragraph. For example, if the second component of an essay on Macaulay is paragraphed thus:


WRONG
I. Macaulay as a man of letters
1. His popular essays . .
2. His history . . . . .
II. His political career
Introduction: "Macaulay's political achievements, though less distinguished than his literary achievements, are worthy of a somewhat detailed notice." . . . . .
1. His career in Parliament
2. His career in India . .
¶
¶
III. His character in private life . . . .

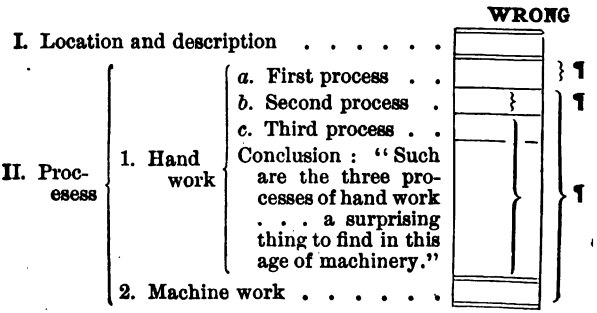
the first paragraph indicated violates the Canon of Unity. The second component of the essay should be paragraphed in one of the following ways:



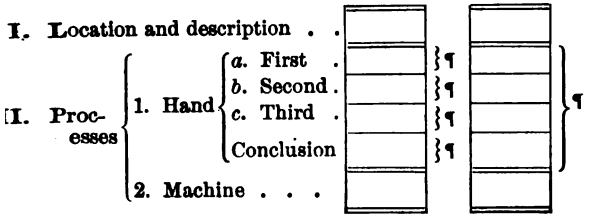
The Conclusion to a Long Thought-component

Conclusion to a component of several paragraphs

544. A passage of one or more sentences that serves as a conclusion to a component of more than one paragraph should be paragraphed separately. If such a passage is made part of the last paragraph of the component, that paragraph will thereby violate the Canon of Unity (539), and moreover the passage will seem to be a conclusion to that paragraph only. If, however, the paragraphing is changed so that the main body of the component occupies a single paragraph, the concluding passage may properly be included in that paragraph. For example, if a component of an essay on a factory is paragraphed thus:


WRONG
I. Location and description . . . . . ¶
II. Processes
1. Hand work
a. First process . .
b. Second process .
c. Third process . .
Conclusion: "Such are the three processes of hand work . . . a surprising thing to find in this age of machinery." ¶
2. Machine work . . . . . ¶

he third paragraph indicated violates the Canon of Unity. The component should be paragraphed in one of the ollowing ways:



Transition Paragraphs

545. When a passage of one or more sentences concluding a component of several paragraphs is followed by a passage introducing a component of several paragraphs, the two may be combined into one paragraph. For, though the two passages may logically be regarded as belonging to different components, and so may, if the writer wishes, be paragraphed separately, yet the first passage may also be regarded as in function auxiliary to the second — as an incidental look backward to make clearer the direction of farther advance — and so may be combined with the second in one paragraph. For example, in an essay defending athletics, two paragraphs are concluded thus: Transition

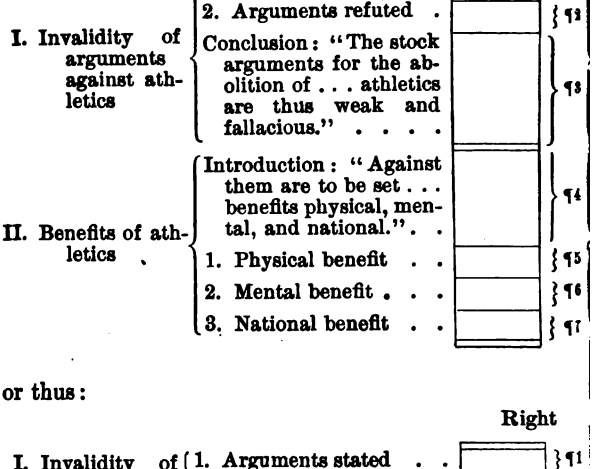
> "The stock arguments for the abolition of school and college athletics are thus weak and fallacious."

and immediately after this sentence, three following paragraphs are introduced thus:

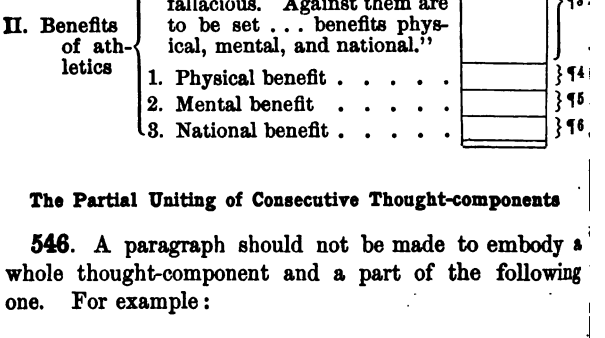
> "Against them are to be set the great benefits of athletics — benefits physical, mental, and national."

These two sentences may, according to the effect desired

by the writer (see Section 538 *b*), be paragraphed either thus:


Right
I. Invalidity of arguments against athletics
1. Arguments stated . .
2. Arguments refuted .
Conclusion: "The stock arguments for the abolition of . . . athletics are thus weak and fallacious." . . . .
II. Benefits of athletics
Introduction: "Against them are to be set . . . benefits physical, mental, and national." . .
1. Physical benefit . .
2. Mental benefit . . .
3. National benefit . .
¶1
¶2
¶3
¶4
¶5
¶6
¶7

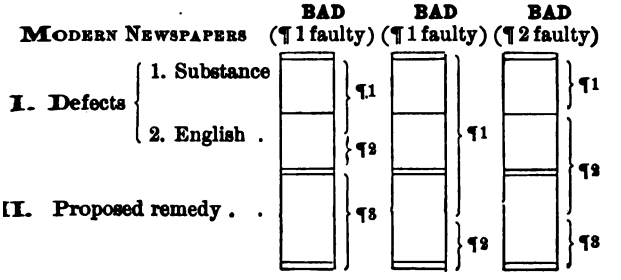
or thus:

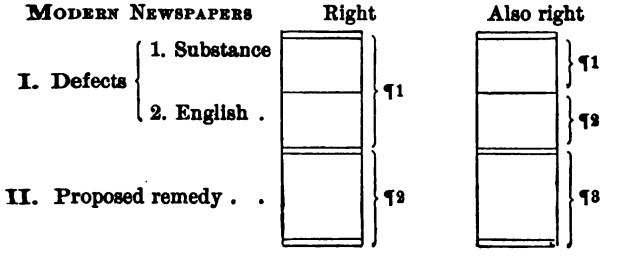

Right
I. Invalidity of arguments
1. Arguments stated . .
2. Arguments refuted . .
II. Benefits of athletics
Introduction: "The stock arguments . . . are thus weak and fallacious. Against them are to be set . . . benefits physical, mental, and national."
1. Physical benefit . . . . .
2. Mental benefit . . . . .
3. National benefit . . . . .
¶1
¶2
¶3
¶4
¶5
¶6

The Partial Uniting of Consecutive Thought-components

Whole component and part of following one

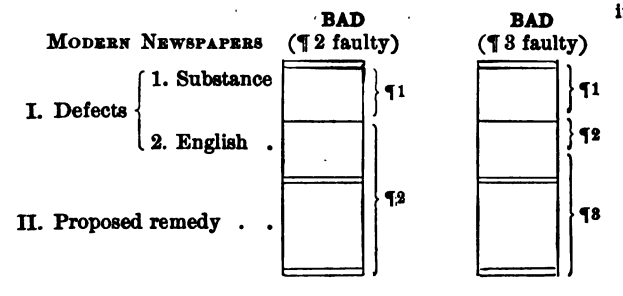
546. A paragraph should not be made to embody a whole thought-component and a part of the following one. For example:





547. A paragraph should not be made to embody a part of one thought-component and the whole of the following one. For example:

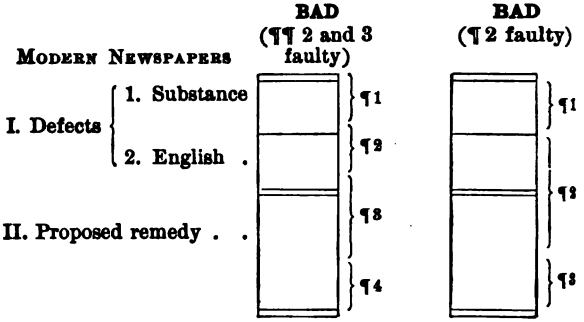
Part of a component and whole of following one



For the correct paragraphing see under Rule 546.

Part of one component and part of following one

548. A paragraph should not be made to embody a part of one thought-component and a part of the following one. For example:



For the correct paragraphing see under Rule 546.

Component beginning within a paragraph not to be broken

549. A thought-component that begins in the midst of a paragraph should be finished in the same paragraph; it is an objectionable practice to begin a thought-component in the midst of a paragraph and then make a new paragraph division in the midst of the component.

Example A

For example, consider the following passage; observe the perplexity that is felt when one pauses, as one naturally does, at the end of the first paragraph:

Violation of Rule 549

I shall never recommend to the trustees of the University of Chicago the removal of any professor on account of his theological opinions. Theological conformity may under some circumstances be desirable in a denominational college. To require such conformity in a university would be intolerable. Moreover, the charter of the University of Chicago is broadly non-sectarian. It is a charter requirement that two thirds of the trustees and the president shall be Baptists.

But it is also a charter requirement that no sectarian test or particular religious profession shall ever be held as a condition precedent to the election of any professor. Obviously the same principles apply to the tenure of any professor. Members of the University faculties are of many religious faiths, a minority being Baptists. The trustees and the president are in entire accord in regarding the policy of religious freedom as the only one which can be followed by a university worthy of the name. The policy will continue to be that of the University of Chicago.[1]

In this passage a distinct thought-component begins with the word "Moreover" in line 7 and ends with the word "professor" in line 15; the break in this component made by the paragraph division is an erratic oddity. The whole passage might, in conformity with the Canon of Unity, be paragraphed as follows:

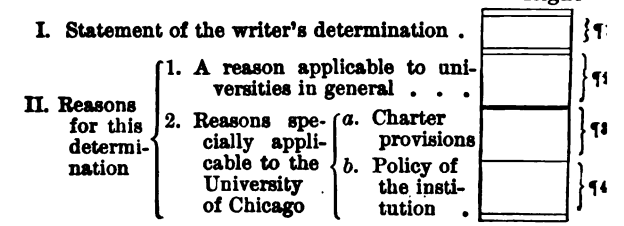
		Right	
I. Statement of the writer's determination .		lines 1–8	¶1
II. Reasons for this determination	1. A reason applicable to universities in general . . .	lines 8–7	¶2
	2. Reasons specially applicable to the University of Chicago: a. Charter provisions	lines 7–15	¶2
	2. Reasons specially applicable to the University of Chicago: b. Policy of the institution .	lines 15–22	¶2

or thus:

		Right	
I. Statement of the writer's determination .			¶1
II. Reasons for this determination	1. A reason applicable to universities in general . . .		¶2
	2. Reasons specially applicable to the University of Chicago: a. Charter provisions		¶3
	2. Reasons specially applicable to the University of Chicago: b. Policy of the institution .		¶3

[1] An open letter from President Judson of the University of Chicago, printed in a Chicago newspaper. The newspaper, not President Judson, is responsible for the paragraphing shown here.

or thus:


Right
I. Statement of the writer's determination .
¶1
II. Reasons for this determination
1. A reason applicable to universities in general . . .
¶2
2. Reasons specially applicable to the University of Chicago
a. Charter provisions
¶3
b. Policy of the institution .
¶4

But though these plans conform to the Canon of Unity, they are not advantageous; the passage should be printed without any paragraph division, thus:

Amended version (cf. p. 228)

I shall never recommend to the trustees of the University of Chicago the removal of any professor on account of his theological opinions. Theological conformity may, under some circumstances, be desirable in a denominational college. To require such conformity in a university would be intolerable. Moreover, the charter of the University of Chicago is broadly non-sectarian. It is a charter requirement that two thirds of the trustees and the president shall be Baptists. But it is also a charter requirement that no sectarian test, or particular religious profession, shall ever be held as a condition precedent to the election of any professor. Obviously the same principles apply to the tenure of any professor. Members of the University faculties are of many religious faiths, a minority being Baptists. The trustees and the president are in entire accord in regarding this policy of religious freedom as the only one which can be followed by a university worthy of the name. The policy will continue to be that of the University of Chicago.

Example B

Another instance of the violation of Rule 549 occurs in the following passage:

Violation of Rule 549

BAD:

The beauty of Fra Angelico's character has been the admiration of all who ever studied the life of that

devout and gentle artist. He might have lived in ease and comfort, for his art would have made him rich; instead, he chose the cloister life. Fra Angelico was gentle and kindly to all.

He was never seen to display anger, and if he admonished his friends, it was with mildness. . . .

Right:

Amended version

The beauty of Fra Angelico's character has been the admiration of all who ever studied the life of that devout and gentle artist. He might have lived in ease and comfort, for his art would have made him rich; instead, he chose the cloister life. Fra Angelico was gentle and kindly to all. He was never seen to display anger, and if he admonished his friends, it was with mildness. . . .

For other examples see pages 256 and 260.

THE TOPIC RULE

The Topic Rule

550. A passage the material of which does not logically fall under one topic should not be embodied in one paragraph.

This rule does not require that a paragraph shall not deal with several different topics; but it requires that if a paragraph deals with several topics, these shall all be logical divisions of one larger topic. A paragraph that deals with

1. Physical benefits of football
2. Intellectual benefits of football

deals with two different topics; yet it conforms to rule because both these topics are embraced by the single topic *benefits of football.* A paragraph dealing with

1. Intellectual benefits of football
2. The manufacture of cheese

violates the rule, not because it deals with two different topics, but because those topics cannot logically be embraced by a single topic.

The following paragraphs are examples of the violation of the Topic Rule:

A

Example of violation of the Topic Rule (550)

Joseph Demarion will spend a year in the house of correction as a result of the postal card habit. When he brought his wife and child here six months ago, he went to Chicago. [See example B under Rule 552.]

B

Example of violation of the Topic Rule (550)

A person does not attain his full strength before the age of twenty. People under that age cannot work in a factory without overtaxing their strength. A parent who sends a child to work in a factory is exposing him to lasting injury. Such a parent does not realize what a strain the work exerts on a child, or else he does not care. But heavy work is not the only thing that injures the health of boys and girls in factories. In a factory, where smoke and dust are always floating about, the lungs and nerves of a weak child are liable to be ruined. For these reasons a child should not be allowed to work in a factory until he has acquired sufficient strength to endure the labor and to withstand the other dangers to health. In the present age, education is necessary to get any sort of good employment. A person to-day without a good education is like a cripple. [See example A under Rule 552.]

C

Example of violation of the Topic Rule (550)

The incubator is a device for hatching eggs by artificial heat. It is used by all professional poultrymen and by most progressive farmers. The incubator is usually set up in a cellar or an incubator house. [See example A under Rule 560.]

D

Example of violation of the Topic Rule (550)

It turned out that my watch was born in the Elgin factory, on the banks of the Fox River, in Illinois. On arriving at the factory it seemed evident that care was the first essential in the making of watches, while the number of watches produced was a secondary consideration. Automatic machines do all the minute work that cannot be done by hand. [See example C under Rule 560.]

E

Ether pervades the whole universe. It extends to the remotest of the fixed stars; it is the material that

occupies the spaces between the molecules — between the very particles that constitute our bodies. In the opinion of modern scientists there is no place where it is not found. When we look about in this great universe of ours, we come to a realization of the absolute insignificance of this planet which we call earth — a mere "lukewarm bullet" as Stevenson calls it. And the more we study, the more perplexing it all seems. The ether is not only thought to be the medium that everywhere exists in space, but it is the medium by which heat comes to us from the sun. It was soon found that light passes through a space entirely devoid of air, and this fact soon gave rise to the belief in the existence of another medium, which was called ether, the vibrations of which constitute light. [See example B under Rule 556.]

Example of violation of the Topic Rule (550)

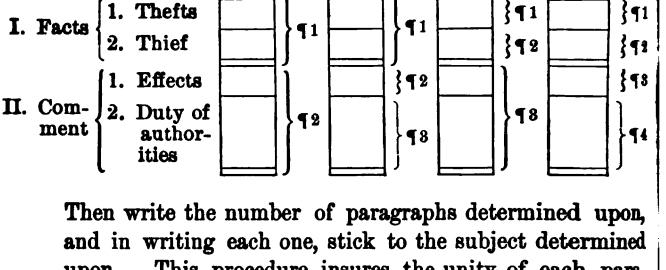
Correction of Violations of the Topic Rule

551. The following sections will show various ways in which violations of the Topic Rule (550) may be corrected. But let it be clearly understood in the beginning that to avoid such violations is better, and also easier, than to correct them. And the way to avoid them is to rid oneself of the habit of writing a composition without any plan — the habit of stringing statements together in the random order in which they happen to occur to one's mind. Never begin a composition, or at least never begin the final draft, without deciding what its main thought-components are to be; for instance, in writing on *The Recent Thefts in our Dormitory*, decide in the beginning, "First I will state the facts of the case; second I will comment on them." And never begin a main thought-component, or its final draft, without deciding what its sub-components are to be; for example, in writing the statement of the facts in the essay supposed, decide in the beginning, "First I will speak of the thefts; then of the evidence as to who committed them"; in writing the comment, decide, "I will speak first of the bad effect of the thefts, and then of what the authorities ought to do."

Correction of violations of the Topic Rule (550)

How to *avoid* violations

Then decide which of the components may best be embodied in separate paragraphs; for example, decide on one of the following plans (see Section 538*b*):



Then write the number of paragraphs determined upon, and in writing each one, stick to the subject determined upon. This procedure insures the unity of each paragraph, and it also usually insures a good structure in the whole composition. (For other examples see Rules 562, 572, 583.)

Change of Paragraphing

Correction of violations of the Topic Rule by change of paragraphing

552. In a well-constructed composition, a violation of the Topic Rule (550) can be corrected merely by changing a paragraph division to a different place or by canceling a paragraph division.

Example A

For example, consider the following passage, of which the first paragraph violates the Topic Rule:

> A person does not attain his full strength before the age of twenty. People under that age cannot work in a factory without overtaxing their strength. A parent who sends a child to work in a factory is exposing him to lasting injury. Such a parent does not realize what a strain the work exerts on a child, or else he does not care. But heavy work is not the only thing that injures the health of boys and girls in factories. In a factory, where smoke and dust are always float-

ing about, the lungs and nerves of a weak child are liable to be ruined. For these reasons a child should not be allowed to work in a factory until he has acquired sufficient strength to endure the labor and to withstand the other dangers to health. In the present age education is necessary to get any sort of good employment. A person to-day without a good education is like a cripple.

Such persons can get no employment except as mere drudges. How can a child receive a good education if he is barred from school by having to go to work in a factory at an early age? Child labor not only menaces the health of the child, but makes his whole future practically hopeless.

Violation of the Topic Rule (550)

The violation of the Topic Rule in this passage can be corrected by changing the paragraphing thus:

A person does not attain his full strength before the age of twenty. People under that age cannot work in a factory without overtaxing their strength. A parent who sends a child to work in a factory is exposing him to lasting injury. Such a parent does not realize what a strain the work exerts on a child, or else he does not care. But heavy work is not the only thing that injures the health of boys and girls in factories. In a factory, where smoke and dust are always floating about, the lungs and nerves of a weak child are liable to be ruined. For these reasons a child should not be allowed to work in a factory until he has acquired sufficient strength to endure the labor and to withstand the other dangers to health.

Amended version

In the present age education is necessary to get any sort of good employment. A person to-day without a good education is like a cripple. Such persons can get no employment except as mere drudges. How can a child receive a good education if he is barred from school by having to go to work in a factory at an early age? Child labor not only menaces the health of the child, but makes his whole future practically hopeless.

Unity secured by change of paragraphing

Example B

Again, consider the following composition, in which the first paragraph violates the Topic Rule:

Violation of the Topic Rule (550)

MILWAUKEE, WIS., May 4. — (Special) — *Joseph Demarion will spend a year in the house of correction as a result of the postal card habit. When he brought his wife and child here six months ago from New York, he went to Chicago.*

Then he sent souvenir postal cards showing himself engaged in various criminal proceedings such as robbing jewelry stores and picking pockets to his wife.

The habit grew on him and he sent his aged mother a card on which he was photographed peering out from behind prison bars and wearing on his breast a placard, "Joliet, 3892." The elder Mrs. Demarion was alarmed and sent the card to her daughter-in-law. Joseph explained that it was taken by a Clark Street photographer as a joke.

The court could not see the joke, especially when the young wife told of her husband's alleged cruelties.

The violation of the Topic Rule can be corrected in this case by changing the paragraphing thus:

Amended version

Joseph Demarion will spend a year in the house of correction as a result of the postal card habit. When he brought his wife and child here six months ago from New York, he went to Chicago. Then he sent to his wife souvenir postal cards showing himself engaged in various criminal proceedings, such as robbing jewelry stores and picking pockets. The habit grew on him and he sent his aged mother a card on which he was photographed peering out from behind prison bars and wearing on his breast a placard, "Joliet, 3892." The elder Mrs. Demarion was alarmed and sent the card to her daughter-in-law. Joseph explained that it was taken by a Clark Street photographer as a joke. The court could not see the joke, especially when the young wife told of his alleged cruelties.

Change of paragraphing

EXAMPLE C

Another instance of a violation of the Topic Rule corrected by the canceling of a paragraph division is given in Example A under Rule 549.

Change of Composition-structure

Correction of violations of the Topic Rule by change of composition-structure

553. In a composition the structure of which is defective, a violation of the Topic Rule (550) cannot usually be corrected by simply changing the paragraphing. For to change the place of a paragraph division so that the faulty paragraph, or the first part of it, is added to the preceding paragraph, will make the preceding paragraph violate the Topic Rule; to join the faulty paragraph, or the last part of it, to the following paragraph, will make this paragraph violate the rule; and to break the faulty paragraph into new paragraphs corresponding to the different topics it discusses will produce scrappy and scanty paragraphs. When this is the case, — when a violation of the Topic Rule cannot be corrected by changes in paragraphing without violating the rules of paragraphing in some other way, — some change in the structure of the composition is required. Among the methods of procedure the following may be mentioned:

Cancellation of Irrelevant Parts

Cancellation of irrelevant parts

554. A paragraph that violates the Topic Rule (550) may be analyzed into its thought-components, and of these such as are found to be irrelevant to the main subject may be omitted.

For example, consider the following paragraph:

Violation of the Topic Rule (550).

1 During the past semester I have had considerable trouble with some of my studies in college. I now see
2 where many high schools are extremely weak. As a rule, high schools pay little attention to detail. I have
3 found my English work particularly hard; I have great difficulty in writing themes free from errors — especially grammatical errors. In all courses given
4 in the university, much attention is paid to detail. While our work may be very good in some respects,

5 yet in detail it is very faulty. We must try hard to make our work perfect in detail. By mastering the *minutiæ* of a study, we learn how to put that study to practical use. We may not realize this fact fully at the present time; but after we have finished our course and come to make practical use of what we have learned, we shall find that minute thoroughness, which we hold lightly now, is of very great value.

6 When in high school, I did not expect to attend college; I therefore did only sufficient work to gain my high school diploma. This was the cause of my troubles. Had I expected to go to college, and had I known the requirements of college work, I should have done my work more thoroughly. The great lesson I have learned from my difficulties is to apply

7 myself to my work. In other words, I have learned to study, and to study hard.

The topics respectively treated in the seven passages marked off above are these:

1. The occurrence of difficulties in my college work
2. Superficiality of the work of high schools in general
3. Difficulties in my English work
4. Failure of students in general to meet the college requirement of thoroughness
5. Value of thoroughness
6. Cause of my difficulties — poor preparation
7. The lesson learned from my difficulties

Of these topics, Nos. 1, 3, 6, and 7 are embraced by one general topic — *difficulties in my college work;* tabulating them as below, we see that this general topic logically includes them all:

DIFFICULTIES IN MY COLLEGE WORK

The occurrence of difficulties in my college work
Difficulties in my English work
Cause of difficulties
Lesson learned from difficulties

Difficulties in my college work, then, seems to be the main topic of the paragraph. To this general topic

subtopics 2, 4, and 5 are irrelevant; if we tabulate them thus:

Superficiality of the work of high schools in general
Failure of students in general to meet the college requirement of thoroughness
Value of thoroughness

we see that to sum them up under the subject *difficulties in my college work* would be absurd. The violation of the Topic Rule in the paragraph may be corrected by omitting the three thought-components corresponding to these three topics, thus:

Amended version (cf. p. 237)

Unity secured by omission of irrelevant parts

During the past semester I have had considerable trouble with some of my studies in college. I have found my English work particularly hard; I have great difficulty in writing themes free from errors — especially grammatical errors. When in high school I did not expect to attend college; I therefore did only sufficient work to gain my high school diploma. This was the cause of my troubles. Had I expected to go to college, and had I known the requirements of college work, I should have done my work more thoroughly. The great lesson I have learned from my difficulties is to apply myself to my work. In other words, I have learned to study, and to study hard.

Irrelevant ending of a final paragraph

555. It is a common error to conclude the final paragraph of an essay with a short passage belonging neither under the main subject of that paragraph, nor under the subject of any other paragraph of the essay. This fault is illustrated by the following paragraph, the last paragraph of an essay entitled *Sources of Slang:*

Violation of the Topic Rule (550)

The third class of slang expressions of which I wish to speak consists of good English words used in senses that apparently have no connection with the proper senses. An example is "cheese it." Some one has conjectured that this expression may have originated, under the early Norman kings in England, from the French *cesser* (*to cease*). Another expression of this

sort is "cut your stick," which Professor Johnso says is derived from the Celtic expression *cuit a teach* (*leave the house*). "You're a brick," "graft," "crank," "twig" in the sense of *understand*, "cove" in the sense of *boy* or *man*, and "copper" for *police man* are other examples. Why some of these expressions have the slang meanings referred to is a matte of conjecture in some cases, and in others will probably always remain in obscurity. *Although slang has been criticised the world over, there are times when it is the only way of expressing the meaning you want.*

Irrelevant ending

The violation of unity in this case, and in most simila cases, should be corrected by canceling the irrelevant sentence or sentences that conclude the paragraph.

Making Irrelevant Parts Relevant

Making irrelevant parts relevant

556. A paragraph that violates the Topic Rule (550) may be analyzed into its thought-components, and of these such as are irrelevant to the main subject may be modified and rearranged so that they are made relevant — so that the main topic is kept before the reader's mind throughout the paragraph.

Example A

For example, consider again this faulty paragraph:

Violation of the Topic Rule (550)

1 During the past semester I have had considerab trouble with some of my studies in college. I no

2 see where many high schools are extremely wea As a rule, high schools pay little attention to deta

3 I have found my English work particularly hard; have had great difficulty in writing themes free fro errors — especially grammatical errors. In all cours

4 given in the university much attention is paid to d tail. While our work may be very good in som respects, yet in detail it is very faulty. We must t

5 hard to make our work perfect in detail, in order to succeed in college. By mastering the *minutiæ* of a study, we learn to put that study to practical use. We may not realize this fact fully at the present time; but when we have finished our course and come to make practical use of what we have learned, we shall find that minute thoroughness, which we hold lightly now, is of very great value.

6 When in high school, I did not expect to attend college; I therefore did only sufficient work to gain my high school diploma. This was the cause of my troubles. Had I expected to go to college and had I known the requirements of college work, I should have done my high school work more thoroughly. The great

7 lesson I have learned from my difficulties is to apply myself to my work. In other words, I have learned to study, and to study hard.

In this paragraph, as was remarked above (see page 238), passages 2, 4, and 5 are irrelevant. They might therefore be simply omitted (see page 239). But they may also be altered so that each one can properly be designated by a topic that belongs to the general topic of the paragraph — *difficulties in my college work.* Thus, while passage 2, on *superficiality of the work of high schools in general,* violates unity, the following passage, on *the cause of my difficulties: superficiality of* MY OWN *high school work,* does not:

> *The cause of my difficulties* was the fact that *my* high school training was extremely defective. *My* high school instructors were very negligent in regard to the details of the students' work.

Irrelevant parts made relevant

While passage 4, on *failure of students in general to meet the college requirement of thoroughness,* violates unity, the following passage, on MY *failure to meet the college requirement of thoroughness,* does not:

> In all courses given in the university much attention is paid to detail. While *my* work has been very good in some respects, yet in detail it has been very faulty.

While passage 5, on *the value of thoroughness*, violates unity, the same passage altered as follows, does not:

> ***My difficulties have taught me*** that *I* must try hard to make *my* work perfect in detail in order to succeed in *my* college work. They have also ***brought to my attention and impressed upon me*** a fact which we students are inclined not to realize at the present time, but which we shall realize after we have finished our course, and come to make practical use of what we have learned: the fact that only by mastering the *minutiæ* of a study can one learn how to put that study to the best practical use.

This passage does not violate unity, because its topic is not simply *the value of thoroughness*, but *lessons learned from* MY *work: the value of thoroughness.* If passages 2, 4, and 5 are altered in the way just shown, the table of topics dealt with in the paragraph will be this:

1. The occurrence of difficulties in my work
2. The cause: my poor high school preparation
3. A specimen of the difficulties: my English work
4. Nature of difficulties: my work defective in detail
5. Lessons learned from my difficulties
6. Cause of my difficulties: poor high school work
7. Lesson learned from my difficulties

Of these topics, Nos. 1, 3, and 4 belong to one topic (the *occurrence* of certain difficulties, as distinguished from the cause of them and the result of them) and should therefore be grouped together. Furthermore, Nos. 1 and 4 together constitute the *statement* of the occurrence of those difficulties, and No. 3 is an *example* of the statement; Nos. 1 and 4 should therefore be grouped together. Obviously Nos. 2 and 6 should be grouped together, and likewise Nos. 5 and 7. In Nos. 5 and 7, however, three lessons are spoken of—

(*a*) Necessity of thoroughness in college
(*b*) Value of thoroughness after completion of college course
(*c*) Art of mastering studies in college

Of these, *a* and *c* both concern college work, and should therefore not be separated by *b*, which concerns work done after the completion of the college course. To sum up, the material in the paragraph should be rearranged according to this plan:

I. Occurrence of certain difficulties
  1. Statement
  2. Example
II. Cause: poor high school training
III. Lessons learned
  1. Thoroughness in college work
  2. Art of mastering studies
  3. Value of thoroughness after graduation

Rewriting the paragraph according to this plan, and making a few more changes of phraseology in order to fit the parts into their new connections, we have the following:

Amended version (cf. p. 240)

Unity secured by modifying and rearranging irrelevant parts

During the past semester I have had considerable trouble with some of my studies in college. In all courses given in the University, much attention is paid to detail. While my work has been very good in some respects, yet in detail it has been very faulty. I have found my English work particularly hard: I have great difficulty in writing themes free from errors — especially grammatical errors. The cause of my difficulties was the fact that my high school training was extremely defective. In the first place, my high school instructors were very negligent in regard to the details of the students' work. In the second place, when I was in high school, I did not expect to attend college; I therefore did only sufficient work to gain my high school diploma. Had I expected to go to college, and had I known the requirements of college work, I should have done my high school work more thoroughly, and so should have escaped many of the difficulties I have mentioned. My difficulties have taught me that I must try to perfect my work in detail, in order to succeed in my college course. They have taught me to apply myself to my work. In other words, I have learned to study, and study hard. They have also brought to my attention and have impressed

upon me a fact which we students are inclined not to realize at the present time, but which we shall realize after we have finished our course, and come to make practical use of what we have learned: the fact that only by mastering the *minutiæ* of a study can one learn how to put that study to the best practical use.

Example B

The same method of correcting a paragraph that lacks unity may be applied to the paragraph on the ether, quoted on page 232. The main topic of that paragraph is *the presence of ether everywhere throughout the universe.* Altering and rearranging passages apparently irrelevant to this topic, and making them subservient to it, so that *the universal presence of ether* is kept in mind throughout the paragraph, we have the following:

Amended version (cf. p. 232)

From the theory that light is the vibration of the medium called ether, follows the conclusion that wherever light can penetrate, there is ether. Therefore ether not only fills the space between the earth and the sun, but extends to the remotest of the fixed stars; the whole marvelous, incomprehensible universe of stars and planets — of which this planet we call earth, this mere "luke-warm bullet" as Stevenson calls it, forms so insignificant a part — is pervaded by ether. And moreover, since light penetrates not only air and spaces devoid of air, but solid substance as well, — glass, for example, — ether occupies the space between the molecules of at least some solid substances. It is present even between the particles that constitute our bodies, as is proved by the phenomena of X-rays. Indeed, in the opinion of some modern scientists, there is in the whole universe no place and no substance which is not permeated by ether.

Unity secured by modifying and rearranging irrelevant parts

Making relevant by subordination

557. A short part that is irrelevant to the main body of a paragraph may be changed from the grammatical form of independent assertion to the form of a subordinate clause or of some other subordinate element, and attached to one of the sentences belonging to the main

body; thus the short part will become, instead of distinct from the main body, subservient or incidental to some part of the main body, and so will not violate unity.

For example, consider the following paragraph:

> The vaudeville theater has its place in the list of useful institutions, and it is often condemned more than it really deserves. It does good in several ways. It is a boon to the poor; to them it is a means of recreation, amusement, and even instruction, of which they would be deprived if the only theaters were those that are more expensive. It keeps many young men and boys from places where gambling and drinking are practiced, which might exert a bad influence upon them. *Vaudeville has some bad effects. Its evil effects are chiefly exerted upon children. Children who go to vaudeville shows are thereby induced to acquire an aversion not only toward school but also toward other work.* The vaudeville serves well as a little amusement for students who study a large amount of their time, and who wish to see something different from their books for the purpose of having a change.

Violation of the Topic Rule (550)

Irrelevant part

The main subject of this paragraph is *the benefits of vaudeville theaters.* To this subject the passage "Vaudeville has . . . other work," italicized in the foregoing copy, is irrelevant. This violation of unity may be corrected by changing the grammatical form of the irrelevant passage and making the passage, in its altered form, dependent on the second sentence, thus:

> The vaudeville theater has its place in the list of useful institutions, and it is often condemned more than it really deserves. *Although it has some bad effects, — upon children, for instance, in whom it breeds a dislike for school work and other work,* — yet it does good in several ways. It is a boon to the poor; to them it is a means of recreation, amusement, and even instruction, of which they would be deprived if the only theaters were those that are more expensive. It keeps many young men and boys from places where gambling and drinking are practiced, which might exert a bad influence upon them. It serves well as a little amusement for students who study a large

Amended version

Unity secured by subordination

amount of their time, and who wish to see something different from their books for the purpose of having a change.

Making relevant by an addition

558. An addition may be made to a paragraph containing a passage apparently irrelevant to the main subject, so that a connection between the passage and the main subject is established.

EXAMPLE A

For example, consider the following paragraph:

Violation of the Topic Rule (550)

> The majority of us despise the melodrama, as a matter of course. It seems to us to occupy the same place in the world of drama that the old-fashioned camp meeting occupies in the world of religion. Consequently we are indifferent to it, and care to know no more of it than we infer from its lurid billboards. Now, among my friends I am proud to number a pædo-psychologist. His favorite manner of passing a vacation is to attend as many camp meetings as the time allows. He says camp meetings, though not very refined, are at least interesting phenomena from which one may learn a variety of things.

This paragraph discusses —

1. Our contemptuous indifference to melodrama.
2. A pædo-psychologist who enjoys camp meetings.

The second topic is irrelevant to the first. The violation of unity may be corrected by making an addition to the paragraph so that a connection between the second component and the first is established, thus:

Amended version

> The majority of us despise the melodrama, as a matter of course. It seems to us to occupy the same place in the world of drama that the old-fashioned camp meeting occupies in the world of religion. Consequently we are indifferent to it, and care to know no more of it than we infer from its lurid billboards. Now, among my friends, I am proud to number a pædo-psychologist. His favorite manner of passing a vacation is to attend as many camp meetings as the

Unity secured by an addition

time allows. He says camp meetings, though not very refined, are at least interesting phenomena from which one may learn a variety of things. Such an observation, it seems to me, applies equally well to the popular melodrama.

The paragraph altered in this way may be analyzed thus:

Main subject: our indifference to melodrama
I. Statement of our indifference
II. Comment on it: indifference a mistake; melodrama worthy of interest and observation

The addition made to the paragraph changes the bearing of the second component, so that that component can properly be designated by a topic that belongs to the main subject of the paragraph.

Example B

Consider the following paragraph:

My ambition is to become a useful citizen and a prosperous business man. With this purpose in mind I have entered upon the study of electrical engineering. The electrical engineer is the man of the hour. There are no steam cars in New York City any longer. Electricity is gradually becoming the chief motive power all over the world.

Violation of the Topic Rule (550)

The violation of unity here may be corrected by an addition to the paragraph, thus:

My ambition is to become a useful citizen and a prosperous business man. With this purpose in mind I have entered upon the study of electrical engineering. The electrical engineer is the man of the hour. There are no steam cars in New York City any longer. Electricity is gradually becoming the chief motive power all over the world. To become an electrical engineer, then, and to rise high in the profession seems to me the best means of realizing my ambition.

Amended version

Unity secured by an addition

Transposition of Irrelevant Parts

Transposition of irrelevant parts

559. A paragraph that violates the Topic Rule (550) may be analyzed into its thought-components, and some of these may be transposed to another part of the composition. **560.** In transposing a passage from one part of a composition to another, one should change the form so as to make the passage fit into its new connection; one should not transpose a passage bodily, but transpose its substance. Observe how this is done in the following examples.

Example A

Consider the following passage, in which the first paragraph violates the Topic Rule:

The Management of an Incubator

Violation of the Topic Rule (550)

The incubator is a mechanical device for hatching eggs by artificial heat. It is used by all professional poultrymen and by most progressive farmers. The incubator is usually set up in a cellar or an incubator house.

Most incubators are shipped from the factory in a partially knocked-down condition. When a machine reaches its destination, it is uncrated and carried to the place where it is to be set up. Then the lamp-holder and the legs are screwed into position, and the machine is set upright. The regulator is taken out of the egg chamber and placed in position over the thermostat. A thermometer is hung in the center of the egg chamber, so that the temperature can be kept constant. . . .

The painful want of unity in the first paragraph above quoted is at once felt by almost any reader. Examination shows where the violation of unity lies: the first two sentences are purely introductory, not dealing with the management of an incubator, but speaking generally of its nature and the extent of its use; with this material is grouped the third sentence, a detached scrap of information about the management of an incubator. The

second paragraph, on the other hand, is a unit; it deals with one topic — *the setting up of the machine.* The violation of unity in the first paragraph is corrected by taking the third sentence out of the paragraph and putting it where its topic indicates that it should go. The topic of the sentence is *the place where the machine is set up;* the topic of the second paragraph is *the setting up of the machine;* therefore the sentence belongs in the second paragraph. Where should the sentence be placed in that paragraph? Examination of the paragraph shows that the sentence belongs after "set up" in the fourth line. Transposing it to that place (transposing its substance, observe; see Rule 560), we have the following:

Amended version (cf. p. 248)

Unity secured by transposition

> The incubator is a mechanical device for hatching eggs by artificial heat. It is used by all professional poultrymen and by most progressive farmers.
>
> Most incubators are shipped from the factory in a partially knocked-down condition. When a machine reaches its destination, it is uncrated and carried to the place where it is to be set up — *usually a cellar or an incubator house.* Then the lamp-holder and the legs are screwed into position, and the machine is set upright. The regulator is taken out of the egg chamber and placed in position over the thermostat. A thermometer is hung in the center of the egg chamber, so that the temperature can be kept constant.

In the foregoing version, though the violation of the rule of unity in the first paragraph of the original is corrected, the paragraph is still objectionable; it is scanty and scrappy. See further Rule 577.

Example B

For another example, consider the following essay:

The Care of Rabbits

1 Rabbits are very common and popular pets among the boys. They are easily handled and kept. *While*

Violation of the Topic Rule (550)

naturally herbivorous, rabbits will eat a great variety of food.

Pens for rabbits should be constructed in dry, sunny situations, and should have good drainage. The walls of the pens should be strongly constructed so that they will not only prevent the escape of the rabbits, but also protect them against the attacks of dogs from the outside. To keep the rabbits from burrowing out, the walls must be carried down deep into the earth, or else the floor of the yards must be covered with chicken wire. Rabbits are fond of burrowing, and it is therefore generally considered beneficial to have a floor of dry earth. If the pens are kept well littered with straw, the animals seldom dig much, but if they once get access to the earth they will burrow rapidly. A yard sixteen by twenty feet will accommodate twenty rabbits or even more. A portion of the yard should be covered in some way to afford shade.

In connection with the yard, a house five by eight feet should be constructed; it should be well ventilated and lighted, with the window so arranged that it can be darkened. The entrance from the yard to the house should consist of about two lengths of five-inch tile, with one joint bending downward into the yard and one bending upward into the house. Rabbits seem to enjoy running through a passage of this kind. It is also useful in preventing the entrance of cats, which will seldom crawl through such a tunnel. If dogs gain entrance to a yard, they will usually dig at the end of the tile rather than attempt to dig under the wall. Straw can be used for litter in the house, but *it should be removed frequently and burned.*

Violation of the Topic Rule

Rabbits can be fed on clover or alfalfa hay, oats, apples, cabbages, and other material of this character. The pens should be cleaned frequently, and should be disinfected with a solution of carbolic acid every month or six weeks, to prevent diseases and to destroy parasites which may form about the pen.

The first paragraph of this essay deals with—

1. The popularity of rabbits as pets
2. The diet of rabbits

Its second component may be transposed (see Rule 560) to the first part of the last paragraph, where the feeding of rabbits is discussed. The third paragraph deals mainly

th the construction and arrangement of the house; the tement "it should be removed frequently and burned" ne 34) does not belong to this topic, but to *the sanitan of the house*, discussed in the last part of the fourth ragraph; this statement may therefore be transposed the last paragraph. Making the two transpositions st mentioned, we have the following:

THE CARE OF RABBITS

Amended version (cf. p. 249)

Rabbits are very common and popular pets among the boys. They are easily handled and kept.

Pens for rabbits should be constructed in dry, sunny situations, and should have good drainage. The walls of the pens should be strongly constructed, so that they will not only prevent the escape of the rabbits but also protect them against the attacks of dogs from the outside. To keep the rabbits from burrowing out, the walls must be carried down deep into the earth, or else the floor of the yards must be covered with chicken wire. Rabbits are fond of burrowing, and it is therefore generally considered beneficial to have a floor of dry earth. If the pens are kept well littered with straw, the animals seldom dig much, but if they once get access to the earth, they will burrow rapidly. A yard sixteen by twenty feet will accommodate twenty rabbits, or even more. A portion of the yard should be covered in some way, to afford shade.

In connection with the yard, a house about five by eight feet should be constructed; it should be well ventilated and lighted, with the windows so arranged that it can be darkened. The entrance from the yard to the house should consist of about two lengths of five-inch tile, with one joint bending downward into the yard and one bending upward into the house. Rabbits seem to enjoy running through a passage of this kind. It is also useful in preventing the entrance of cats, which will seldom crawl through such a tunnel. If dogs gain entrance to the yard, they will usually dig at the end of the tile rather than attempt to dig under the wall. Straw can be used for litter in the house.

Though rabbits will eat a great variety of food, yet they are naturally herbivorous; it is therefore best to feed them clover or alfalfa hay, oats, apples, cabbages,

Unity secured by transposition

and other materials of this character. *If straw is us for litter, this should be frequently removed an burned.* The pens should be cleaned frequently, an should be disinfected with a solution of carbolic ac every month or six weeks, to prevent disease and t destroy parasites which may form in the pen.

In the foregoing version, though the first paragraph ha unity, it is still objectionable because scanty and *scrappy* See further Rule 577.

Example C

Again, consider the following passage:

The Story of My Watch

I had carried my watch with me from year to year, in countries where the sun forgot to disappear at night, in countries also where the sun stepped out of skies of brass into a sea of gold and where cool winds seemed never to blow. Everywhere and always the watch kept steadily at its task of marking off the minutes and hours of my life; and though I was for a long time not particularly grateful for that service, still it occurred to me one day that of all the servants that had worked for me, none had been so undeviatingly true as this modest little watch. So I cast about me for a becoming tribute to pay to my busy companion, and bethought myself happily of a pilgrimage to the place of its birth.

Violation of the Topic Rule (550)

It turned out that my watch was born in the Elgin factory, on the banks of the Fox River, in Illinois. On arriving at the factory it was evident that care was the first essential in the making of watches, while the number of watches produced was a secondary consideration. Automatic machines do all the minute work that cannot be done by hand.

It had always seemed to me that the great number of small parts of which a watch is composed, and the need for their perfect proportioning and adjustment, made a watch one of the most marvelous achievements in the realm of mechanical arts. But I could never have realized, had I not seen, how fairy-delicate were the cogs, the pinions, the studs, the springs, and wheels; I could have had no idea of the skillful welding and amalgamation of metals, of the severe tempering required to arm the little chronometer

against influences likely to produce expansion and contraction; I could have had no conception of the strength and resistance of these apparently fragile parts, had I not watched the processes in the Elgin factory. The operatives who sit year after year, each at his particular task, acquire sensitiveness of touch that to the inexperienced observer appears magical. And where the work is too fine for even such hands as theirs to do, marvelous automatic machines take up the task, threading screws of infinitesimal size; setting up the jewel-bearings of diamond, ruby, sapphire, or garnet; and creating the hairsprings fine as a spider's web.

But I wish to give you, not merely my general impressions of the Elgin factory, but a consecutive account, based on what I saw there, of how my watch came into existence. . . .

In the second paragraph of this passage there are three distinct and unrelated components, dealing severally with —

1. The location of the "birthplace" of the watch
2. The writer's impression of the care exercised in making watches
3. Use of automatic machines

The first of these may be transposed to the preceding paragraph, since that paragraph mentions the "birthplace." The second may be transposed to the following paragraph, since that paragraph deals with general impressions of the work in the factory. The third should be omitted, since it is identical in substance with the statement, "And where the work is too fine" etc. in lines 38–41. Omitting it accordingly and transposing the first and the second components, we have the following:

THE STORY OF MY WATCH

I had carried my watch with me from year to year, in countries where the sun forgot to disappear at night, in countries also where the sun stepped out of skies of brass into a sea of gold and where cool winds seemed never to blow. Everywhere and always the watch kept steadily at its task of marking off the minutes and hours of my life: and though I was for

Amended version (cf. p. 252)

Violation of unity corrected by transposition

a long time not particularly grateful for that service, still it occurred to me one day that of all the servants that had worked for me, none had been so undeviatingly true as this modest little watch. So I cast about me for a becoming tribute to pay to my busy companion, and bethought myself happily of a pilgrimage to the place of its birth, *the Elgin factory, on the banks of the Fox River in Illinois.*

It had always seemed to me that the great number of small parts of which a watch is composed, and the need for their perfect proportioning and adjustment, made a watch one of the most marvelous achievements in the realm of mechanical arts. But I could never have realized, had I not seen, how fairy-delicate were the cogs, the pinions, the studs, the springs, and wheels; I could have had no idea of the skillful welding and amalgamatian of metals, of the severe tempering required to arm the little chronometer against influences likely to produce expansion and contraction; I could have had no conception of the strength and resistance of these apparently fragile parts, had I not watched the processes in the Elgin factory. The operatives who sit year after year, each at his particular task, acquire sensitiveness of touch that to the inexperienced observer appears magical. And where the work is too fine for even such hands as theirs to do, marvelous automatic machines take up the task, threading screws of infinitesimal size; setting up the jewel-bearings of diamond, ruby, sapphire, or garnet; and creating the hairsprings fine as a spider's web.

Transposition

And in all these marvelous processes it was evident that care was the first essential in the making of watches, while the number of watches produced was a secondary consideration.

But I wish to give you, not merely my general impressions of the Elgin factory, but a consecutive account, based on what I saw there, of how my watch came into existence. . . .

Irrelevant ending of first paragraph

561. It is a common fault to place in the first paragraph of an essay, along with matter purely introductory, a short passage belonging to some part of the main body of the essay. Such a violation of the Topic Rule may usually be corrected by transposing the short passage to its proper place in the body of the essay. See, for example, illustrations A and B under Rule 560.

Reconstruction

562. In case a composition contains a number of violations of the Topic Rule, these faults complicated with faults in the structure of the composition, it is profitless to try to correct the bad paragraphing by any of the methods above explained. In such a case the only thing to do is to make a fresh start and reconstruct the composition entirely. The best way to do this is as follows: First, draw up an outline for the new composition. For this outline some suggestions can always be obtained from the old composition. Second, decide what components of the new composition should, according to the fundamental principle of paragraphing (see Sections 537, 538), be embodied in separate paragraphs. Third, write the new composition according to the outline and the scheme of paragraphing determined upon. In the writing of the composition, some parts of the old composition may be used, their phraseology being altered in order that they may fit into their new connections; but such of the original material as has no connection with the new outline should be discarded; and usually some new material must be supplied.

Entire reconstruction necessary

Method of reconstruction

Example A

For example, consider the following apparently hopeless hodgepodge of bad paragraphs and bad composition-structure:

A Defense of Athletics

An essay with manifold defects

The athletics of to-day are subject to a good deal of harsh and unnecessary criticism. Athletics have always been and always will be a part of one's education. The athlete has existed since the beginning of the world. Stories of the ancient athletic contests seem to impress upon the mind how the ancient people celebrated the occasions on which athletic feasts were carried on. The Greeks even went so far as to kill all the weak and puny children born to them, and on

See Topic Rule (550)

this account we have the great race of Greeks of the fifth century B.C. At the present time there exists a class of people who are trying there best to exterminate athletics in all our schools and colleges. The question arises, why do these people object to athletics? They offer numerous excuses. Some say that athletics take up too much time; others say that too many are injured; and others say that too much money is wasted. The people by whom these objections are made are people who are sickly or who do not care to exert themselves more than is required in every day life. They are people with more money than brains.

Athletic exercise, if not taken in undue quantities, is valuable to the mind and muscle. If the body can stand the strain, nothing is more refreshing than to indulge in athletic sport of some kind. The body and its numerous parts require exercise that cannot be gained without the aid of athletics. One cannot expect to be strong and healthy if he stay indoors all the time and never takes exercise of any kind. If this be the case, the body will degenerate, and some disease will set in. The cause of most accidents in athletics is not the fault of the game but of the persons percipitating in the game. One cannot expect to play a hard game of football if he has had no previous preparation for the ordeal.

See Topic Rule (550)

Athletics are of more value than harm to the body. They are the basis of every country's wealth, for they make the men, and strong men make a strong country. Look at the present condition of Spain, once a foremost and first-rank country, now ranked among the third class. And why? Simply because the inhabitants of Spain are lazy and object to work and have at last begun to degenerate and be ranked not as a first-rate power but among the lowest of the third.

See Topic Rule

The United States is built up of a class of hard-working athletic men, who take pride in the fact that athletics form a part of man's every day work. Statistics show that the greater per cent of sickness is due to the want of exercise of the different parts of the body. If athletics did more harm than good, the greatest physicians of the country would not prescribe them for weak and deceased persons. Athletics not only develop the muscles but also the mind.

See Rule 549

Every one will agree that a change of occupation benefits the mind. If a man engaged in business after

his work is over will engage in athletic work, thereby taking his mind off his business cares, his troubles will seem trifles. If athletics are of more value than harm to the human mind and body, then why not put the shoulder to the wheel and try and preserve athletics in all our schools and colleges?

See Topic Rule

See Rule 542

To make a good composition of this looks like an impossibility; and so it would be if one tried to do it by making changes at the places where it is faulty. But something can be accomplished by total reconstruction, thus: First, we draw up an outline for a new composition, for which we get suggestions from the original:

I. Invalidity of the opposition to athletics
   1. Character of the opponents, and their arguments. [See lines 11–22.]
   2. Answer to the arguments. [See lines 32–36.]

II. The benefits of athletics
   Introduction
   1. Physical benefit. [See lines 23–32, 37, 48–53.]
   2. Mental benefit. [See lines 53–59.]
   3. National benefit. [See lines 5–11, 38–48.]

III. Summary

Next, we decide on this plan of paragraphing:

I. Invalidity of the opposition	1. The opponents and their arguments .	¶1
	2. Answer to the arguments	¶2
II. Benefits of athletics . .	Introduction	¶3
	1. Physical benefit . .	¶4
	2. Mental benefit . . .	¶5
	3. National benefit . .	¶6
III. Summary		¶7

Then we rewrite the essay according to the foregoing outline and scheme of paragraphing, looking through the original essay, as we write each component, for material that may be incorporated in that component. In writing the first paragraph, we see that we can use the material in lines 11–22 of the original, thus:

Reconstructed version (cf. p. 255)

There is at the present time a class of people who are trying to abolish athletics in all our schools and colleges. They are people who are themselves physically sluggish and averse to manly sports, and who are thus instinctively prejudiced against athletics. The objections they specify are that school and college athletics consume too much time and too much money, and cause numerous injuries to the students.

In the composition of paragraph 2, the material in lines 32–36 of the original version may be used in answer to the objection regarding injuries; but since the original version makes no answer to the objection regarding the waste of time and money, such an answer must be newly composed for the new version. Paragraph 2 may then be written as follows:

In answer to the objection that athletics consume too much time and too much money, it may be said that even if the statement is true, it does not furnish a reason for abolishing athletics. The fact that students were immoderate in athletics would not prove that athletics were wholly harmful; and until it is proved that they are wholly harmful, there is no justification for exterminating them. As to the argument that injuries are suffered in athletic games, it should be remembered that the cause of most accidents in such games is insufficient training for hard physical ordeals. One cannot expect to play a violent game of football without injury if one has not had careful preparation for it. Injuries suffered by a comparatively small number of men as a result of their own imprudence should not be made the ground for depriving a much greater number of men of the sports which greatly benefit them. Accidents in athletics call for greater care on the part of the athletes, not for the abolition of athletics.

Paragraph 3 must be newly composed:

See Rule 545

The stock arguments for the abolition of school and college athletics are thus weak and fallacious. Against them are to be set the great benefits of athletics — benefits physical, mental, and national.

Then we write paragraphs 4, 5, and 6 thus:

Athletic exercise is necessary to physical health. . . . [*And so on. The material of lines* 23–32, 37, 48–53 *of the original version may be used in this paragraph, the phraseology being altered as the new context requires.*]

Athletics not only develop the muscles and promote the health, but benefit the mind. . . . [*And so on. The substance of lines* 53–59 *of the original version may be used in this paragraph; but more material must be added to give the paragraph the right proportion.*]

Athletics are a means of promoting the power of a nation, for they make strong, energetic men, and such men make a strong nation. Look at the present condition of Spain. . . . [*And so on, the material of lines* 40–45 *being incorporated here.*] On the other hand, look at ancient Greece. History tells us of the extraordinary love of athletic exercises that prevailed among the Greeks; it also tells us that the period of their highest devotion to athletics was the period of their highest national power. [*Observe that the material of lines* 5–11 *is here transposed to a place where it has some connection with the context.*] The greatness of England and the United States is largely accounted for by the devotion of English and American men to athletic sports. It has been said that the British victories on European and Asian battle fields were in reality won on the cricket fields of England. As truly might it be said that the military and commercial conquests of the United States began on the football fields, the baseball diamonds, the running tracks, and the rowing courses of American schools and colleges.

Paragraph 7, the summary, should sum up the whole essay. Lines 59–62 of the original version, it will be observed, sum up only a part of it. The following is a complete summary:

Since, then, the arguments commonly made for the abolition of school and college athletics are utterly inconclusive, and since athletic games practiced with moderation and prudence are physically and mentally advantageous to the men who engage in them and are a factor in the power and greatness of the nation, it follows that school and college athletics should not be abolished, but should rather be, with proper regulation, encouraged and extended.

See Rule 542

Example B

The same method of reconstruction may be applied to the following extremely bad essay:

The Care of a Motor Car

An essay containing manifold defects

When a motor car is new it should receive particular care. Of course a man is inclined to keep his car spotless on account of its being a new one. This is particularly true if it is his first motor car. The body of the car should be washed once a day, because the varnish may not be entirely dry. Dust allowed to remain on the body will scratch it. There is one great mistake made by many people in the care of a new car: they spend too much time on the outside of the car and too little on its mechanism.

See Topic Rule (550)

See Rule 549

Many people who are just learning how to operate a car forget that it has many delicate parts which need a great amount of oil, and more oil when it is new than they will need after a month's use. They do not think of these parts until it is too late. Every motor car company sends with each car a book of instructions. In the first place, the book says, the care of the car must be left to the judgment of the owner, who should study the construction of the car. The method of caring for an automobile may be summed up in two rules: "Lubricate" and "Adjust." It is readily understood that where one part moves upon another, there is always friction, and these parts must be oiled frequently. Great care is also necessary to see that all nuts and bolts are kept properly tightened. Most of the parts subject to wear are provided with adjustments for taking up such wear, and these adjustments should be inspected occasionally and should receive attention whenever they need it. It would fatigue the reader to go into detail regarding the care of a motor car, but I may say that the great majority of "automobile troubles" are the result of negligence, while reasonable care will insure satisfactory service. The common sources of trouble are these: inadequate lubrication, imperfect vibrator-action, imperfect adjustment, dirty gasoline, and lack of water. Inadequate lubrication is by far the most detrimental, for it may ruin all the wearing surfaces of the machinery.

See Rule 549

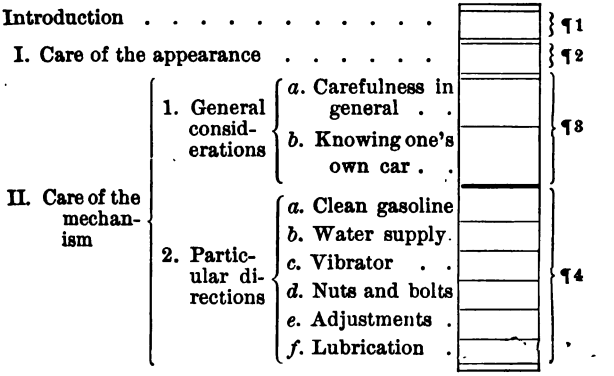
Of course, after a month's use of the machine, the lubrication may be lessened. On long tours the engine

needs great attention. Just before the beginning of such a tour the motor should be examined, and all defective parts should be replaced. The care of the tires is important. Every tire should be repaired, or if it is in very bad condition, should be replaced by a new one. About twice as much oil should be used on long tours as is ordinarily used. Again, you see, the lubrication is an important point.

First we make an outline:

Introduction: Purpose of the essay [See lines 29–31].
I. Care of the appearance of a car [See lines 1–7].
II. Care of the mechanism
1. General considerations
a. Carefulness in general [See lines 7–10, 31–33].
b. Knowing one's own car [See lines 15–19].
2. Particular directions
a. Clean gasoline [See line 36].
b. Water supply [See line 36].
c. Vibrator action [See line 35].
d. Nuts and bolts. [See lines 24, 25].
e. Adjustments [See lines 26–29].
f. Lubrication [See lines 11–14, 21–24, 34–40, 46–48].

Next we determine on a plan of paragraphing:



Then we write the essay thus:

The Care of a Motor Car

Reconstructed version (cf. p. 260)

See Rule 541

It is not my purpose to fatigue the reader by an exhaustive treatment of the care of motor cars, but only to speak briefly of some points which are especially important for a beginner in motoring to know. I shall speak only of gasoline cars, and shall offer some advice, first, as to the care of their appearance, and second, as to the care of their mechanism.

A man is naturally inclined to keep a new motor car spotless, especially if it is the first one he has owned. But even with such an inclination on the part of the owner, the appearance of a new car may be injured by dust remaining on it too long. Often the varnish on a new car is not entirely dry when it comes from the factory, and dust allowed to remain on the body of the car will scratch it. For this reason the body of a new machine should be washed once a day.

Many people who are just learning how to operate a motor car disregard the fact that it has many delicate parts, which require constant attention. The great majority of "automobile troubles" are the result of negligence, while reasonable care will insure satisfactory service. But in order to be able to give a car reasonable care, a man must understand the mechanism of his particular kind of car. Every motor-manufacturer sends with each car a book of instructions. It is the first duty of a purchaser to study the book and get well acquainted with his machine.

There are, however, a few particular rules which are valuable to every person who is learning to manage a gasoline motor, of whatever kind it may be. First, see that your gasoline is clean. [*A sentence should be inserted here telling definitely the consequences of dirty gasoline.*] Second, remember your water supply. [*The consequence of lack of water should be specified here.*] Third, take particular care of your vibrator. [*Details should be specified.*] Fourth, look out for loose bolts and nuts; examine the car for these frequently, and especially before beginning a long tour. Fifth, keep your adjustments regulated. Most parts of a car that are subject to wear are provided with adjustments for taking up such wear; these adjustments should be constantly inspected and kept regulated. Sixth, and most important of all, *lubricate.* By far the most detrimental error that the owner of a motor car can commit is to neglect the lubrication of

his machine or to lubricate it inadequately; for through lack of oil all the wearing surfaces of the machinery may be ruined. All parts that move upon one another should be oiled frequently. The beginner should know that a car requires much more oil when it is new than after a month's use. A new car should be oiled . . . [*Specific directions should be given here.*] After a month's use, the lubrication may be lessened. But at every period of its use a car requires twice as much oil when it is making a long tour as it requires when driven about town.

PARAGRAPHING FOR EMPHASIS

Paragraphing for emphasis

563. The rule that a paragraph should embody *the whole* of a single thought-component may sometimes be suspended for the sake of emphasizing a part of a thought-component. For example:

> Indefinite narrative should not be entirely avoided; it is useful, and for some purposes is preferable to concrete narrative. Parts of a story that are not of dramatic interest, speeches that are of no interest or importance, — these may properly be conveyed by indefinite rather than by concrete narrative. But remember this:
>
> *Actions occurring at important points of a story should be related by concrete, not indefinite narrative.*

Likewise, the last paragraph of the essay on the care of a motor car, on page 262, might, for the sake of emphasizing what is said about lubrication, be broken by a new paragraph division before the words "Sixth, and most important."

THE CANON OF ADVANTAGE

The Canon of Advantage

564. Every paragraph should embody a thought-component which it is advantageous to present with particular distinctness. This is the Canon of Paragraph Advantage.

PARAGRAPH DIVISIONS TOO INFREQUENT

Unbroken text fatiguing

565. It is fatiguing to read an extended composition or passage in the text of which there are no breaks to rest the eye. Hence the Canon of Advantage involves the following rules:

Entire neglect of paragraphing

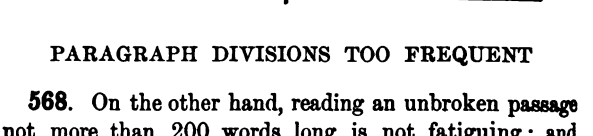
566. A composition more than 400 words long should not be written without any paragraph divisions.

Paragraphs too long

567. A thought-component more than 400 words long should not usually be written as a single paragraph, but should be divided into two or three paragraphs of convenient length (*i.e.*, not longer than 200 words), these of course corresponding with the sub-components. For example, an essay on Lincoln presenting —

I. A narrative of his life	500 words
II. An estimate of his greatness	100 words

should not be written as two paragraphs; its first main component should be divided into two or three paragraphs corresponding to the sub-components — for example, thus:



PARAGRAPH DIVISIONS TOO FREQUENT

Much-broken text annoying

568. On the other hand, reading an unbroken passage not more than 200 words long is not fatiguing; and over-frequent paragraphing annoys as much as lack of paragraphing fatigues. Hence the Canon of Advantage involves the following rules:

569. A composition no longer than 150 words should usually be written without any paragraph division. For example: Short compositions not paragraphed

THE QUALIFICATIONS OF AN ARMY OFFICER

Essay properly written without paragraphing

To be in the highest sense successful as an army officer, and to gain in the fullest degree the confidence and devotion of the men over whom he has command, a man should be strong and firm in will, but should at the same time be so just as to preclude all possibility of insistence on obedience to unjust commands or persistence in mistake. Proficiency in the art of leading men must be, of course, in some degree acquired; yet there must be in the very nature of him who would command his fellows that which spells *leadership*. Acquired characteristics, thought perhaps of minor importance, because they *may* be acquired, are yet necessary in an efficient officer. He must learn accurately and completely the various technicalities necessary to the performance of his duty. He must be educated to perceive quickly, and to act sanely and wisely in accordance with that perception. In order to have the respect of his men, he must preserve a dignified bearing while on duty, and, for that matter, at all other times; the ability to do this without affectation must be in great degree acquired.

For other examples see pages 208, 210, 230, 236.

570. Several consecutive short sub-components, all forming a thought-component not longer than 200 words, should not be written each in a separate paragraph; all should be combined into one paragraph. If they are all paragraphed separately, the paragraphing gives the reader no visible indication of the identity of the longer component. The identity of the longer component, rather than the individuality of its parts, should usually be shown by the paragraphing. Improper separation of minute parts

Grouping better than separation

Thus in an essay on a steel factory describing —

(*a*) The process of sheet-rolling
(*b*) The process of rail-rolling
(*c*) The process of casting

part *b* should not be written as follows:

Improper separation of minute parts

Steel ingots six feet long and six inches square were heated to a white heat in a large oven.

When sufficiently hot, an ingot was removed and taken on an endless chain to the first set of rollers.

These rollers were eighteen inches in diameter. When the ingot had been passed through them, it was a bar of steel ten feet long and five inches thick.

Then the bar of steel was put on another endless chain and taken to a second pair of rollers.

This process was continued, the bar being passed successively through five or six pairs of rollers.

It came from the last pair a red-hot rail of standard size.

It was next bent slightly so that the base was convex. This was to allow for unequal contraction in cooling.

The rail was now left to cool.

When cold, it was taken to the cold rollers and rolled perfectly straight.

Part *b* should be written as follows:

Amended version

Steel ingots six feet long and six inches square were heated to a white heat in a large oven. When sufficiently hot, an ingot was removed and taken on an endless chain to the first set of rollers. These rollers were eighteen inches in diameter. When the ingot had been passed through them, it was a bar of steel ten feet long and five inches thick. Then the bar of steel was put on another endless chain and taken to a second pair of rollers. This process was continued, the bar being passed successively through five or six pairs of rollers. It came from the last pair a red-hot rail of standard size. It was next bent slightly so that the base was convex. This was to allow for unequal contraction in cooling. The rail was now left to cool. When cold, it was taken to the cold rollers and rolled perfectly straight.

THE RULE OF PARAGRAPH ADEQUACY

Scanty and scrappy paragraphs

571. A scanty and scrappy paragraph should not be allowed to stand. This rule does not mean that a composition should contain no brief paragraphs, for a paragraph may be brief without being scanty and scrappy.

The paragraphs beginning with the words "Recent legislation" and "One cannot foretell" on page 222, the one beginning "Macaulay's political achievements" on page 223, the one beginning "Such are the three processes" on page 224, the one beginning "The stock arguments" on page 226, the one beginning "Since, then "on page 259, the one beginning "It is not my purpose" on page 262, the one beginning "Actions occurring" on page 263, and the various paragraphs of direct quotation on pages 291–295, — all these paragraphs are brief; but they are adequate to their particular purposes; they give the reader no feeling of meagerness and deficiency. But such a feeling is given by the italicized paragraphs below:

A

INTER-CLASS ATHLETICS

There is a well-established system of inter-class athletics in Muskegon College. There are class baseball teams, class crews, class track teams, class basketball teams, and freshman and sophomore football teams.

The inter-class baseball teams play almost every afternoon in spring.

In the latter part of May comes the inter-class regatta. At the close of the football season the freshmen and the sophomores play their annual championship football game.

In both the fall and the spring come the inter-class track meets.

Scanty and scrappy paragraphs

During the winter the classes play a series of basket-ball games. That these inter-class contests are beneficial to the students — not only those who take part in them, but those who only look on and cheer — cannot be denied. They afford exercise and sport for men who cannot or do not wish to participate in intercollegiate athletics. They also develop new material for Varsity teams. They bring students into contact and fellowship and form new friendships. They promote a spirit of comradeship, which makes college life more enjoyable and also more beneficial. [See Example A under Rule 573.]

B

PLEASURES OF WINTER

About the greatest pleasure which winter brings us is skating. What brings us more pleasure than to hear the noise made by our skates as we glide swiftly along? Skating is moreover very healthful. It helps a great deal in the development of the lungs and the muscles.

Scanty and scrappy paragraphs

In skating every muscle of the body is brought into use—particularly the muscles of the legs and the back.

Another pleasure of winter is sleigh riding. Though not so beneficial as skating, it nevertheless is a great help to the lungs. The fresh air seems to put new life into the body.

C

THE CARE OF RABBITS

Scanty paragraph (cf. p. 251)

Rabbits are very common and popular pets among the boys. They are easily handled and kept. [See Rule 577.]

D

AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF NORRIS DODD PINKERTON

Scanty and scrappy paragraphs

I was born in Bridgewater, Iowa, in the year 1888. *My early education was received from my parents who taught me my A B C's and how to add, subtract, and multiply. I started to school at the age of seven. On the first day I went to school, I was very timid. The teacher spoke very pleasantly to me, but I thought she was making fun of me, so I went home. After being in the first grade for one year I was promoted into the second.*

In the autumn of 1902 I entered high school. I was very timid at first, but I rapidly made friends and soon became one of the best-known members of my class. At the end of the first school year I was promoted to the sophomore class. The standings I received in my sophomore year were the highest I obtained in my whole course. During the summer following my sophomore year, I did no work, but spent my time in fishing and boating. My junior year was a year of very hard work because of the large amount of laboratory work I had to do. Also,

in this year I had to study plane geometry, and try as I might, I could never make head or tail of that subject; in the final examination, however, I got 77. During the following summer I worked as time-keeper for a gang of Greeks laying a railroad.

At length the time came when I was to graduate. The class presented the farce, Charley's Aunt, *and I played the part of the aunt.*

Scanty and scrappy paragraphs

During my high school course I was a member of the literary society and also of the debating society.

In my sophomore year, I and eleven of my friends formed a club called the H. D. The members were all sophomores, and these members, when they graduated, selected twelve members of the sophomore class to succeed them.

An annual banquet is held by the H. D. on December 30. This banquet is to be an annual affair.

At this banquet all the old members of the club are brought together to tell stories of their high school days. It is the intention of the club to make this an annual gathering for years to come.

During my high school course I was always interested in athletics. As I was playing a game of football one night with a crowd of boys, I fell in a scrimmage and arose with a broken collar bone. That was the last game of football I played for some time.

Baseball is another game in which I am interested.

In summer I like to go swimming and boating, and I am an enthusiastic fisherman.

When I was young, many were the hours I spent on Johnson's Creek, boating and fishing in summer, and fishing through the ice in winter.

Now I am a student in Minnehaha College, where I expect to receive the degree of A.B. four years from now. [See Rule 583.]

E

Some Landladies I have Known

I recall a landlady in Oshkosh with whom I once had to deal. When I arrived at her house to inquire for lodgings, I found her most hospitable; she held out many inducements to me to engage a room under her roof. Beguiled by her fair promises, I and the friend who accompanied me established ourselves joyfully in Mrs. Yokum's two-pair-front.

The promises Mrs. Yokum made on our first day she performed for two days. On the third day she prohibited certain acts which she had at first declared would be freely permitted. Taken by surprise, and not knowing immediately what to do, we submitted; but our grievance rankled. A second grievance soon followed: the meals, which had been very satisfactory, dwindled lamentably on the fourth day. We might submit to the loss of certain privileges as lodgers, but we refused to starve. We gave notice that unless a reformation took place at once in the commissariat, we would leave. This protest was effectual. From that day to the day of our departure, her table was as bountiful as an abbey refectory — almost.

Scanty and scrappy paragraph

Another landlady I have in mind, who would be very gracious and affable when any one engaged a room, but thereafter would be most disagreeably peevish whenever she saw the lodger. There was no reason for this; all that we lodgers could say was that she was odd. [See Example A under Rule 576, Example B under Rule 579, and Example A under Rule 580.]

Elimination of Scanty and Scrappy Paragraphs

Elimination of scanty and scrappy paragraphs

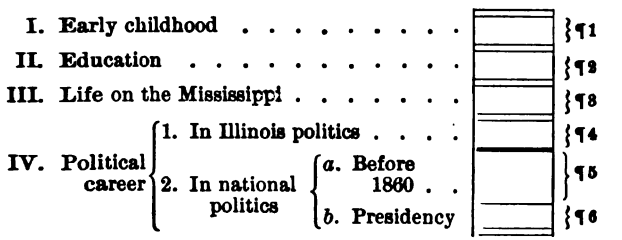
572. In the following sections are stated some modes of procedure that are useful in the revision of a composition containing scanty and scrappy paragraphs. But let it be understood in the beginning that it is better to avoid writing such paragraphs than to eliminate them.

How to *avoid* them

They are usually the result of writing a composition without a plan. If a writer, in composing an essay, decides in advance what its structure is to be and what components may best be paragraphed separately, and then writes the number of paragraphs determined upon, sticking to the subject determined upon for each one, and seeing that no paragraph is conspicuously disproportioned to paragraphs coördinate with it — if a writer does this, he will have no scanty and scrappy paragraphs to eliminate. In writing an essay on Lincoln, one should first decide what its components are to be — for example,

I. Early childhood
II. Education
III. Life on the Mississippi
IV. Political career
  1. In Illinois politics
  2. In national politics
    a. Before 1860
    b. Presidency

Then one should decide what the paragraphing is to be — for example,



Having decided on this plan of structure and paragraphing, the writer should write the number of paragraphs determined on, taking care that coördinate paragraphs — that is to say, paragraphs 1, 2, and 3 and paragraphs 5 and 6 — are justly proportioned to each other. This does not mean that he should try to make paragraphs 1, 2, and 3 of the same length, or to make paragraphs 5 and 6 of the same length. It would be absurd to lay down the rule that coördinate paragraphs should be of approximately the same length. But it is a sound rule that a paragraph should not consist of one or two scrappy sentences when paragraphs coördinate with it consist of several hundred words.

Change of Paragraphing

573. In a well-constructed composition a scanty and scrappy paragraph can be eliminated by merely changing

Elimination of scrappy paragraphs by change of paragraphing

the paragraphing — by adding the faulty paragraph to the preceding or the following one.

Example A

Thus, consider the essay entitled *Inter-class Athletics* on page 267. Analyzing that essay into its thought-components, we see that it —

1. States what inter-class contests are held
2. Points out the value of these contests

The scanty and scrappy paragraphs in the essay as printed above may be eliminated by embodying each thought-component in one paragraph thus:

Inter-class Athletics

Amended version (cf. p. 267)

There is a well-established system of inter-class athletics in Muskegon College. There are class baseball teams, class crews, class track teams, class basket-ball teams, and freshman and sophomore football teams. The inter-class baseball teams play almost every afternoon in spring. In the latter part of May comes the inter-class regatta. At the close of the football season the freshmen and the sophomores play their annual championship football game. In both the fall and the spring come the inter-class track meets. During the winter the classes play a series of basket-ball games.

Scrappy paragraphs eliminated by change of paragraphing

That these inter-class contests are beneficial to the students — not only those who take part in them, but those who only look on and cheer — cannot be denied. They afford exercise and sport for men who cannot or do not wish to participate in intercollegiate athletics. They also develop new material for Varsity teams. They bring students into contact and fellowship and form new friendships. They promote a spirit of comradeship, which makes college life more enjoyable and also more beneficial.

Example B

For another example of the elimination of scanty and scrappy paragraphs by change of paragraphing, see under Rule 570.

Change of Composition-structure

574. In a composition the structure of which is defective, a scanty and scrappy paragraph cannot usually be united with the preceding or the following paragraph without violation of the Canon of Unity. In such a case some change in the structure of the composition is required. Among the methods of procedure the following may be mentioned:

Elimination of scrappy paragraphs by change of composition-structure

Cancellation of Scrappy Paragraphs

575. A scanty and scrappy paragraph may be omitted. **576.** When this is done, the title of the composition must in many cases be changed.

Omission of scrappy paragraph

Example A

For example, consider the essay *Some Landladies I have Known* on page 269. The omission of the flat and meager paragraph that concludes this essay would be a decided improvement. If it is omitted, what remains of the essay will deal, not with "some landladies," but with one particular landlady; the title should be changed accordingly, thus:

My Oshkosh Hostess

Amended version (cf. p. 269)

I recall a landlady in Oshkosh with whom I once had to deal. When I arrived at her house to inquire for lodgings, I found her most hospitable; she held out many inducements for me to engage a room under her roof — immediately under it, in fact. Beguiled by her fair promises, I and the friend who accompanied me established ourselves joyfully in Mrs. Yokum's two-pair-front.

Scrappy paragraph omitted and title of essay changed

The promises Mrs. Yokum made on our first day she performed for two days. On the third day she prohibited certain acts which she had at first declared would be freely permitted. Taken by surprise, and not knowing immediately what to do, we submitted; but our grievance rankled. A second grievance soon

followed: the meals, which had been very satisfactory, dwindled lamentably on the fourth day. We might submit to the loss of certain privileges as lodgers, but we refused to starve. We gave notice that unless a reformation took place at once in the commissariat we would leave. This protest was effectual. From that day to the day of our departure her table was as bountiful as an abbey refectory — almost. [See also Example B under Rule 579 and Example A under Rule 580.]

Example B

Again, consider the following composition, of which the second paragraph is scanty and scrappy:

Modern Newspapers

Frequently after reading a daily paper for half an hour or more, I have thought over what I have read, and have wondered what good it has done me, whether I have profited by it, and whether I might not have read all this in a short time. And I feel that the modern newspaper is made up almost wholly of exaggerated, sensational, and worthless news. For example, if a train wreck occurs, one will see at the top of the first page, flaring and sensational headlines. Then there will be several columns of reading matter in which practically the same thing is repeated over and over again. Then also the number of victims will be greatly exaggerated — frequently as much as tenfold. After a day or two one will find the true report in some secluded corner. This is true not only of railroad wrecks but also of many other happenings. The most famous example of worthless news was the report of the Thaw trial. Day after day whole pages of the proceedings of the trial were published. In reading the paper, one might have thought that Mrs. Thaw was of more importance than the President of the United States. After reading all about it, one had not gained any valuable knowledge; it was all a waste of time.

Scanty and scrappy paragraph

Another fault open to criticism is the style. This fault is especially true of the sporting page, where many slang phrases are used. Then also poor English and poor constructions are used.

I think that an ideal newspaper should be about as

large as our college daily — a half of a folio sheet, containing four pages. The news should be stated clearly and correctly. The happenings of the day should be stated as briefly as possible without omitting any of the principal incidents. All reports should be written in good style. There should not be so many advertisements as most of the modern daily papers contain. I think that the reader would find such a paper more enjoyable, and also more instructive.

The faulty paragraph of this essay may be omitted, thus:

THE SHALLOWNESS OF MODERN NEWSPAPERS

Amended version (cf. p. 274)

Frequently after reading a daily paper for half an hour or more, I have thought over what I have read, and have wondered what good it has done me, whether I have profited by it, and whether I might not have read all this in a short time. And I feel that the modern newspaper is made up almost wholly of exaggerated, sensational, and worthless news. For example, if a train wreck occurs, one will see, at the top of the first page, flaring and sensational headlines. Then there will be several columns of reading matter in which practically the same thing is repeated over and over again. Then also the number of victims will be greatly exaggerated — frequently as much as tenfold. After a day or two one will find the true report in some secluded corner. This is true not only of railroad wrecks but also of many other happenings. The most famous example of worthless news was the report of the Thaw trial. Day after day whole pages of the proceedings of the trial were published. In reading the paper, one might have thought that Mrs. Thaw was of more importance than the President of the United States. After reading all about it, one had not gained any valuable knowledge; it was all a waste of time.

Scrappy paragraph omitted and title of essay changed (see Rule 576)

I think that an ideal newspaper should be about as large as our college daily — a half of a folio sheet, containing four pages. The news should be stated clearly and correctly. The happenings of the day should be stated as briefly as possible without omitting any of the principal incidents. The reports should be written in good style. There should not be so many advertisements as most of the modern daily papers

contain. I think that the reader would find such a paper more enjoyable and also more instructive. [See also Example A under Rule 579 and Example B under Rule 580.]

EXAMPLE C

Another example of the omission of a scanty paragraph is given under A on page 285.

Fatuous introductions

577. It is a common fault to begin an essay with a scrappy paragraph which contributes nothing of value to the composition, and which the writer prefixes only because he supposes that a composition is incomplete without an introductory passage. For example, an essay on the management of an incubator begins thus:

THE MANAGEMENT OF AN INCUBATOR

Fatuous introductions

The incubator is a mechanical device for hatching eggs by artificial heat. It is used by all professional poultrymen and by most progressive farmers. . . . [See page 249.]

— as if one should begin an essay on how to dehorn a cow by informing the benighted reader, "A cow is a large tame animal used chiefly as a source of a white fluid called milk. Cows are kept by all dairymen and by most farmers, progressive or conservative," and should then proceed, "Cows are dehorned in the following way. . . ." An essay purporting to give a few practical directions to boys about taking care of rabbits begins thus:

THE CARE OF RABBITS

Rabbits are very common and popular pets among the boys. They are easily handled and kept. . . . [See page 251.]

A narrative of an occurrence in a Western town begins thus:

THE AGENT'S TACT

> An insurance agent is a person whom most people are not very anxious to see, especially those who have insurance or those who do not believe in insurance. These two classes of people always try and keep clear of an insurance agent.
>
> While I was employed in a general merchandise store in Baraboo, there was an insurance agent who was always trying to get one of my fellow-workmen to take out some insurance. . . .

Such unprofitable and malapropos introductions should be omitted. There is no need that an essay have any introduction. If some preliminary remarks — a statement of the plan of the essay, of the writer's purpose, of the occasion for his writing, of the source of his information — contribute to the clearness or effectiveness or agreeableness of the essay, the essay is the better for such an introduction (see, for example, the introductory paragraphs on pages 222 and 262); otherwise there is no impropriety in beginning without preface the main body of the essay (see, for example, the essays on pages 208, 210, 265, 272, 273, and 289).

Introduction not necessary

578. A scrappy concluding paragraph that adds nothing to the clearness, effectiveness, or agreeableness of a composition should not be tacked on at the end. In particular, the main body of a narrative should not be followed by a paragraph deducing a lifeless moral, such as the following:

Fatuous conclusions

> And thus Velma learned, as so many had learned before her, and as so many have learned since, and so many — alas! — are yet to learn, that all that glitters is not gold.
>
> This story shows us that we should be content with what we have and not be always seeking for more privileges. For as some one has said, "Enough is as good as a feast."

Conclusion not necessary

There is no need that a composition have any conclusion (as distinguished from the main body). If a helpful summary, or a happy remark reverting to the beginning of the composition, or an interesting or amusing reflection suggested by the main discussion can be written at the end of a composition, so much the better (see, for example, the concluding paragraphs on pages 222 and 259); otherwise there is no reason why the last sentence of the main discussion should not conclude the composition (see, for example, the compositions on pages 214 and 262).

Expansion of Scrappy Paragraphs

Expansion of a scrappy paragraph

579. A scanty and scrappy paragraph may be expanded. The first step in this process is to make a plan (see Rules 551, 572) for a fuller treatment of the subject of the paragraph.

Example A

For example, consider again the composition *Modern Newspapers* on page 274. The subject of the faulty paragraph of that composition is *the defective style of newspapers*. For a fuller treatment of this subject we may adopt this plan:

1. Bad English
   a. Words
   b. Constructions
2. Rhetorical faults

In accordance with this plan we may proceed as follows:

Expanded version (cf. p. 274)

> Another fault of our newspapers is the style in which they present the news. Their columns are sown with provincial and vulgar expressions — "wealthy broker suicides," "Rev. Smith hits divorce," "Chief of Police Ryan claims that the hold-up proposition is a fake," "a fight transpired last night in Clink's saloon," "Governor Haskell is up against it," "he offered to restitute the goods, but was jailed," "he has proven his worth," "close the deal," "the local Democracy

can't be downed," "enthuse," "a big per cent," "size up," "way down," and others — a nauseous multitude. The slang that abounds particularly on the sporting page is by some people regarded as clever and racy — or, to use the newspapers' own language, "snappy." But for my part, I see no cleverness in cramming an article with the greatest possible number of hackneyed and vulgar slang words — like "biff," "rattled," "dopey," "called down," "a bunch of fans," "all to the mustard." Ungrammatical constructions are also common in newspapers — "the man whom Hicks said stole the watch," "neither one of them are candidates," "Major Moore with two companies of cavalry are to escort the Governor." Ill-arranged, shambling, shuffling sentences, such as no good writer ever puts down even in haste, strike one's eye continually. A typical one lies before me now: "Then he sent souvenir postal cards showing himself engaged in various criminal proceedings such as picking pockets to his wife." [Here we perceive that our discussion of the style of newspapers will be too long to stand advantageously in one paragraph (see Rule 567); we therefore decide to embody it in two paragraphs, corresponding to the two topics — 1, *bad English*, and 2, *rhetorical faults*. Accordingly, we begin a new paragraph here:]

But even more offensive than the vulgar vocabulary, the untutored grammar, and the ramshackle sentences is the affectation that saturates newspaper style — affected grandiloquence and elegance, and, still more disgusting, affected wit and humor. I wish I knew a newspaper that could make a statement about an elephant without calling it a "pachyderm," or about a cat without calling it a "feline." I wish I knew a newspaper that could mention Boston, or Japan, or Kansas twice in a paragraph without calling it "the Hub," or "the Flowery Kingdom," or "the Sunflower State" the second time. I wish a newspaper could mention *anything* twice — a football, a labor strike, a dog, a college faculty, a bowler, a rat, a telegraph operator, a reporter, a prize fighter, a fight, a hotel — without calling it by a lugged-in synonym the second time — "the pigskin sphere," "the gigantic tie-up," "the canine," "that erudite aggregation," "the devotee of the ten-pin game," "the voracious rodent," "the key man," "the scribe," "the big fellow," "the fistic encounter," "the hostelry." I

wish the "bluecoats" would not always "make heroic efforts" to control the "struggling mass of humanity." I wish more people were arrested, and fewer "taken into custody." I wish the fact might be announced to the public that Madison defeated Freeport without such braying as this: "A clean hit between third and short by George Ives, a perfect sacrifice by Mee, and a howling double by Kulms, the ball soaring over the right field fence, gave Madison yesterday's game over Freeport, making it three times in three days that the Senators forced the stubborn Pretzels to eat the dust."

These two paragraphs we substitute for the scanty and scrappy paragraph in the original essay.

EXAMPLE B

The essay *Some Landladies* on page 269 might likewise be amended by treating the second landlady on a scale proportioned to the treatment of the first.

EXAMPLE C

Another example of expansion of a scanty paragraph is given under B on pages 285–288.

Transposition of the Material of a Scrappy Paragraph

Transposition of substance of a scrappy paragraph

580. The substance of a scanty and scrappy paragraph may be incorporated in some other part of the composition, its form being altered, and its substance being made subservient or incidental to that of the paragraph in which it is incorporated (cf. Rules 556, 557, 559, 560). When this is done, the title of the composition must in many cases be changed (cf. Rule 576).

EXAMPLE A

For example, the scanty paragraph of the essay *Some Landladies* on page 269 may be eliminated by transposition as follows:

MY OSHKOSH HOSTESS

As a type of some landladies I have known who are gracious and affable to prospective lodgers, but become disagreeable, peevish, unreasonable, eccentric, and otherwise vicious after the lodgers are established, I recall a landlady in Oshkosh with whom I once had to deal. . . . [*And so on, the paragraph beginning "Another landlady" being omitted.*]

Amended version (cf. p. 269)

See Rule 557

EXAMPLE B

Likewise the faulty paragraph in the essay *Modern Newspapers,* quoted on page 274, may be eliminated by transposition thus:

THE SHALLOWNESS OF MODERN NEWSPAPERS

Frequently after reading a daily paper for half an hour or more, I have thought over what I have read, and have wondered what good it has done me, whether I have profited by it, and whether I might not have read all this in a short time. *I am not considering now the style of our newspapers — the bad English, the slang of the sporting page, the ungrammatical and ill-constructed phraseology* — but only the substance. I feel that the modern newspaper is made up almost wholly of exaggerated, sensational, and worthless news. . . . [*And so on, the paragraph beginning "Another fault" being omitted.*]

Amended version (cf. p. 274)

See Rule 556

EXAMPLE C

Another example of the elimination of a scrappy paragraph by transposition is given under C on page 288.

Amputated Conclusions

581. It is a common fault to end a composition with a scanty paragraph that introduces a new topic coördinate with those of the preceding main components, and then abruptly lets the new topic drop.

Amputated endings

Example A

This fault is illustrated by the following essay:

My College Work of the Past Semester

During the past semester I have had considerable trouble with some of my studies in college. I have found my English work particularly hard; I have great difficulty in writing themes free from errors — especially grammatical errors. When in high school, I did not expect to attend college; I therefore did only sufficient work to gain my high school diploma. This was the cause of my troubles. Had I expected to go to college, and had I known the requirements of college work, I should have done my high school work more thoroughly. The great lesson I have learned from my difficulties is to apply myself to my work. In other words, I have learned to study, and to study hard.

Amputated ending

Some of my courses have been easy for me on account of a natural mechanical ability — for instance, drawing and shop work.

This essay is constructed thus:

I. Difficulties in my work
II. Easy parts of my work

On the first topic the writer has made a fair paragraph; the second he merely introduces and then drops. The resulting weakness and incompleteness of the essay will be noted. (Concerning the correction of this essay, see pages 285–288.)

Example B

Another example is the following essay:

Woman Suffrage

Women should vote. Not until this privilege is granted them can the constitution be a bulwark of freedom and justice to all. A woman obeys the laws, is punished if she violates them, must bear taxation; yet she has no more rights than a child. She is de-

prived of one great and important right — *i.e.*, representation. Without doubt woman is man's equal and often his superior morally and intellectually. Men are not the rulers of the earth on account of their intellectual power, but because of their superior strength. It is a case of oppression of the weak by the strong. Women are better judges of men's character and more particular in general than men are, and naturally would vote for the best man, socially as well as politically.

One objection to woman suffrage is that it would destroy the home life too often. This objection is not a good one, as a woman who really cared for her family and children would have the same affection for them if she did take half an hour a few times a year in which to vote. Some men take all day and half the night to vote. In every case a woman would cast a vote for the protection of children. Her mother instinct gives her an insight into the needs and requirements of children that men seldom see. Women also have more time and inclination to study and work for the welfare of children.

It is said that a majority of women do not care to vote, as the polls are unfit for a woman's presence. If this is so, what is the reason for it? It is because women have been deprived of their rights so long that such freedom is strange at first. Some negroes did not desire freedom either. Perhaps a woman's vote would drive profanity from the polls and make them fit for a respectable person. If the polls are not fit for a woman, they are not fit for a decent man, and should be made better right away.

Wherever woman suffrage has been tried, it has met with success, and better conditions have followed. Four states have enfranchised women, and many reforms have followed. Amputated ending

This essay makes four arguments:

I. Justice requires woman suffrage
II. Woman suffrage would not injure, but would safeguard, home life
III. Women's objection to attendance at the polls would be only temporary
IV. Woman suffrage is justified by experience

The fourth and weightiest argument, which occupies the place of honor in the essay, — the place where the most

telling blows should be struck, — is only introduced and then dropped with two weak and unsupported generalizations.

EXAMPLE C

Another example is the following essay:

FARM LIFE IN WINTER

During the winter, when there are no growing crops to be cared for, the necessary daily routine of a Wisconsin farmer is comparatively short. Of course the stock and the poultry must be fed and tended every day; but having done this, the farmer still has a good deal of time for other than routine work. Some of this surplus time is employed in preparing grain, by means of the fanning mill, for the spring planting; some is employed in cutting and hauling wood enough to last through the coming summer and autumn.

But on farms in the far Northwest the winter does not always pass so quietly. There, farmers must be on the watch for blizzards. When a blizzard is feared, the cattle must be brought into a place of safety, for no one can tell how long the storm will last. All the energies of the farmer are devoted to preserving his cattle, for in this district the cattle are his chief source of income. At such a time, also, the farmer must take care that his home is provided with enough fuel and food to stand a long siege of snow, for if he were to go out in search of these necessaries during a blizzard, he might very probably never be seen again.

Amputated ending

In districts where there are maple forests, the late winter is spent in tapping the trees and collecting the sap.

Three procedures in case of amputated ending: (A) cancellation, (B) expansion, or (C) transposition

582. A scanty concluding paragraph which introduces a new topic and abruptly lets it drop should be eliminated by one of the methods shown above in Rules 575, 579, 580: (A) it should be omitted, the title of the composition being changed, if necessary, in this case; or (B) it should be expanded to fitting proportions; or (C) its substance, in altered form, should be incorporated

elsewhere in the composition, the title of the composition being changed, if necessary, in this case.

For example, consider the essay *My College Work of the Past Semester* on page 282.

A. The scanty concluding paragraph of that essay may be omitted, and the title may be changed (see Rules 575, 576), thus: (A) Cancellation

MY DIFFICULTIES OF THE PAST SEMESTER

During the past semester I have had considerable trouble with some of my studies in college. I have found my English work particularly hard; I have great difficulty in writing themes free from errors — especially grammatical errors. When in high school, I did not expect to attend college; I therefore did only sufficient work to gain my high school diploma. This was the cause of my troubles. Had I expected to go to college, and had I known the requirements of college work, I should have done my high school work more thoroughly. The great lesson I have learned from my difficulties is to apply myself to my work. In other words, I have learned to study, and to study hard.

Amended version (cf. p. 282)

Scrappy paragraph omitted and title of essay changed

B. The final paragraph in question (printed on page 282) may be expanded. This may be done according to the following plan (see Rules 551 and 579): (B) Expansion

Subject of the paragraph: Easy parts of my work
Introduction
1. Drawing
2. Shop work

thus:

Two of my courses have been easy for me on account of a natural mechanical ability. I refer to the courses in drawing and shop work. My work in drawing was very successful from the very beginning. I had had no experience whatever in mechanical drawing, and the requirements of my instructor were very strict. Nevertheless, in spite of these disadvantages, I had no difficulty in securing high standings in drawing. With my shop work the case was somewhat different, for in this I had the advantage of a good deal of previous

Amended version (cf. p. 282)

Final paragraph expanded

experience. This, together with my native aptitude for mechanical work, made my work in the shop just as successful as my work in the drawing class, and even less difficult.

If greater expansion were desirable

NOTE. — The foregoing paragraph might well, for the sake of proportion, be expanded still more if the first paragraph of the essay were longer, as in the version of the essay printed on page 287. In that case some of the general statements in the paragraph "Two of my courses" etc., on page 285, might be supported by the addition of examples and details. Thus, the paragraph contains this statement:

> I had had no experience whatever in mechanical drawing.

How to expand

This we might make fuller and more emphatic by adding details thus:

> I had had no experience whatever in mechanical drawing; I had never even seen a drawing pen or a sheet of drawing paper before I came to college.

This is not merely using thirty words for a statement that could be made as well in ten. The thirty-word statement is more forcible and interesting than the ten-word statement. In using the thirty-word form here, we are not padding, to fill space; we are using that form in preference to a form which is inferior, but which is more suitable, on account of proportion, for the shorter essay. Again, the paragraph contains the following statement:

> . . . . the requirements of my instructor were very strict.

This statement might likewise be made fuller and more emphatic by adding details, thus:

> . . . . the requirements of my instructors were very strict. The utmost accuracy and finish were insisted upon, and the penalties for even slight imperfections in workmanship were heavy.

Again, the paragraph contains this statement:

> . . . . I had the advantage of a good deal of previous experience.

Details of the experience might be added:

. . . . having worked a whole year at an engine lathe, having spent several of my vacations in a large carpenter shop, and having also been engaged several times in building work.

f we made all these additions, we should have the paragraph hown in the following version of the essay:

MY COLLEGE WORK OF THE PAST SEMESTER

During the past semester I have had considerable trouble with some of my studies in college. In all courses given in the university, much attention is paid to detail. While my work has been very good in some respects, yet in detail it has been very faulty. I have found my English work particularly hard; I have great difficulty in writing themes free from errors — especially grammatical errors. The cause of my difficulties was the fact that my high school training was extremely defective. In the first place, my high school instructors were very negligent in regard to the details of the students' work. In the second place, when I was in high school, I did not expect to attend college; I therefore did only sufficient work to gain my high school diploma. Had I expected to go to college, and had I known the requirements of college work, I should have done my high school work more thoroughly, and so should have escaped many of the difficulties I have mentioned. My difficulties have taught me that I must try to perfect my work in detail, in order to succeed in my college course. They have taught me to apply myself to my work. In other words, I have learned to study, and study hard. They have also brought to my attention and have impressed upon me a fact which we students are inclined not to realize at the present time, but which we shall realize after we have finished our course, and come to make practical use of what we have learned: the fact that only by mastering the *minutiæ* of a study can one learn how to put that study to the best practical use.

Two of my courses have been easy for me on account of a natural mechanical ability. I refer to the courses in drawing and shop work. My work in drawing was very successful from the beginning. I had had no experience whatever in mechanical drawing; I had never even seen a drawing pen or a sheet of drawing

Amended version (cf. p. 282)

First paragraph made longer (cf. p. 243), and second therefore expanded still more than on page 285.

Expanded paragraph (cf. p. 282)

paper before I came to college. Moreover, the requirements of my instructor were very strict; the ut most accuracy and finish were insisted upon, and the penalties for even slight imperfections in workmanshi were heavy. Nevertheless, in spite of these disad vantages, I found no difficulty in securing high stand ings in drawing. With my shop work the case wa somewhat different, for in this I had the advantage o a good deal of previous experience, having worked a whole year at an engine lathe, having spent several o my vacations in a large carpenter shop, and having also been engaged several times in building work This previous practice, together with my native apti tude for manual operations, made my work in the shop as successful as my work in the drawing class, and even less difficult.

(C) Transposition

C. The substance of the paragraph in question (see page 282) may be incorporated, in altered form, else where in the essay, and the title may be changed (see Rule 580), thus:

DIFFICULTIES IN MY COLLEGE WORK

Amended version (cf. p. 282).

See Rules 560, 557

During the past semester, *although some parts of my work—for instance, drawing and shop work—have been easy for me, on account of a natural mechanical ability*, yet in some of my courses I have had considerable trouble. I have found my English work particularly hard. . . . [*And so on, the second paragraph being omitted.*]

Reconstruction

Entire reconstruction necessary

Method of reconstruction

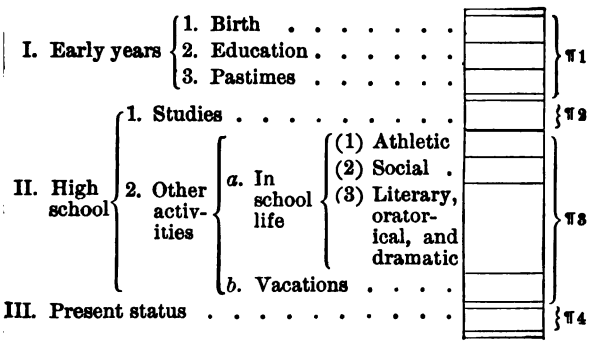
583. In case a composition contains a number of scanty and scrappy paragraphs and is besides defective in structure, it is profitless to try to eliminate the faulty paragraphs by any of the methods above shown; the only thing to do is to make a fresh start, and reconstruct the composition according to the plan explained in Rules 551 and 572.

This is the case, for instance, with the autobiography beginning on page 268. This composition we may re

Construct as follows: First, we make an outline, suggested by the material in the composition, thus:

I. Early years
  1. Birth [See line 1.]
  2. Education [See lines 2–9.]
  3. Pastimes [See lines 50–52.]
II. High school period
  1. Studies [See lines 13–16, 18–23.]
  2. Other activities
    a. Those connected with school life
      (1) Athletic [See lines 42–47.]
      (2) Social [See lines 10–13, 31–41.]
      (3) Literary, oratorical and dramatic [See lines 26–30.]
    b. Vacations [See lines 16–18, 24–25.]
III. Present status [See lines 53–55.]

Second, we decide on this mode of paragraphing:



Third, we write the composition according to the foregoing plans, thus:

AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF NORRIS DODD PINKERTON

I was born in 1888 in Bridgewater, Iowa, where most of my life has been spent. My early education I received from my parents, who taught me my A B C's and how to add, subtract, and multiply. With this handicap in my favor, I started to school at the age of seven. On the first day I was very timid. The

Reconstructed version (cf. p. 268)

teacher saw this, I suppose, and tried to reassure me by speaking to me pleasantly; but thinking she was making fun of me, I took offense and went home. My grade-school career, however, was not to be cut short at the very outset by this little rupture, I returned on the next day, and made a fresh start. From that time on, my course in the grade school ran prosperously on to its completion. What I remember best about it is that I found it necessary to spend only one year in each grade; at the end of each year I was promoted into the next grade above. Meanwhile I was not idle out of school. I was then, as I am still, an enthusiastic swimmer, boatman, and fisherman, and many were the hours I spent, out of school hours and during vacations, on Johnson's Creek, boating, fishing, and swimming in summer, and fishing through the ice in winter.

In the autumn of 1902 I entered high school. I succeeded fairly well in my freshman studies, and at the end of the year was promoted to the sophomore class. The standings I received in my sophomore year were the highest I obtained in my whole course. My junior year was a year of very hard work on account of the large amount of laboratory work I had to do. Also, in this year I had to study plane geometry, and try as I might, I could never make head or tail of that subject; in the final examination, however, I got 77. The work of the fourth year . . . [*The plan of the narrative requires that something be said on this subject, but data are wanting.*]

During my high school course I was always interested in athletics, — particularly baseball and football, — though I did not engage actively in them. I did play football, to be sure, for a time; but one afternoon I fell in a scrimmage and arose with a broken collar bone; this accident kept me from active participation in the game for some time. My social life during my high school years was a busy one. When I entered school I was very timid, but I rapidly made friends and soon became one of the best known members of my class. In my sophomore year I and eleven other sophomores formed a club called the H. D., for the continuance of which (for years to come, we hope) we provided at our graduation by choosing twelve members of the sophomore class to succeed us. This club holds every year, on Decem-

ber 30, a banquet, which is attended by the active chapter and as many as possible of the alumni members. Besides taking an interest, as I have said, in athletics, and an active part in social affairs, I was, during my high school course, a member of the literary society and of the debating society. Nor did I hold aloof from the dramatic endeavors of the school: in *Charley's Aunt*, which my class presented at its graduation, I took the title rôle. The summer vacations of my high school years I spent principally in my favorite pastimes, swimming, boating, and fishing, varied, in the summer following my junior year, by some work as timekeeper for a gang of Greeks laying a railroad.

Now I am a student at Minnehaha College, where I expect to receive my bachelor's degree in 1911. [*This last paragraph is not scanty and scrappy, for there is no reason, inherent in the character of the essay, for saying anything more on the subject.*]

THE PARAGRAPHING OF DIRECT QUOTATIONS

584. In narrative compositions, as a rule, any narrated direct quotation, together with the rest of the sentence of which it is a part, should be paragraphed separately. For example:

Direct quotations to be paragraphed separately in narrative

Right:

There were no takers. Not a man believed him capable of the feat. Thornton had been hurried into the wager, heavy with doubt; and now that he looked at the sled itself, the concrete fact, with the regular team of ten dogs curled up in the snow before it, the more impossible the task appeared. Matthewson waxed jubilant.

"Three to one," he proclaimed. "I'll lay you another thousand at that figure, Thornton. What d'ye say?"

Narrated quotation

Thornton's doubt was strong in his face, but his fighting spirit was aroused — the fighting spirit that soars above odds, fails to recognize the impossible, and is deaf to all save the clamor for battle. He called Hans and Pete to him. Their sacks were slim, and with his own the three partners could rake together only two hundred dollars. In the ebb of their fortunes this sum was their total capital; yet they laid it unhesitatingly against Matthewson's six hundred.

Indention of following line

585. The line following the end of a quotation that is paragraphed separately should be indented, since it is the beginning of a new paragraph.

WRONG:

"You must stand off from him," Matthewson protested. "Free play and plenty of room."
The crowd fell silent; only could be heard the voices of gamblers vainly offering two to one.

Right:

"You must stand off from him," Matthewson protested. "Free play and plenty of room."
The crowd fell silent; only could be heard the voices of gamblers vainly offering two to one.

Indention after preceding *he said*

586. A quotation may be detached by paragraphing from the introductory expression (*e.g., he said*) if this expression precedes it.

Right:

Mr. Peggoty looked round upon us and nodding his head with a lively expression animating his face, said in a whisper,
"She's been thinking of the old 'un."

Improper if containing predication is continued

587. But a quotation should not be so detached from the introductory expression if the quotation does not close the sentence.

WRONG:

Thinking I could stand it if my friend could, I called out to him,
"Come on. Who's afraid?" and started into the house.

WRONG:

Thinking I could stand it if my friend could, I called out to him,
"Come on. Who's afraid?"
and started into the house.

Right:

Thinking I could stand it if my friend could, I called out to him, "Come on. Who's afraid?" and started into the house.

Quotations not narrated

588. Rule 584 does not usually apply to quotations not narrated, nor to quotations narrated by way of illus-

tation in an expository, argumentative, persuasive, or escriptive passage.

Quotations not narrated

NOT GOOD (quotation not narrated):

Perhaps the reader asks at this point,
"But how did Bellairs learn these details?"
I cannot answer the question. That part of the story has never yet been cleared up.

Right:

Perhaps the reader asks at this point, "But how did Bellairs learn these details?" I cannot answer the question; that part of the story has never been cleared up.

But note:

Right (quotations narrated):

At this point Jim broke in,
"But how did Bellairs learn these details?"
I could not answer. That part of the story I had not been able to clear up; and in fact, it has never yet been cleared up.

Right (quotation not narrated):

Mr. Roebuck is never weary of repeating this argument. "May not every man in England say what he likes?" Mr. Roebuck asks. But the aspirations of culture are not satisfied unless what men say, when they say what they like, is worth saying.

Right (quotation not narrated):

The people who believe most that our greatness and welfare are proved by our being very rich, and who most give their lives and thoughts to becoming rich, are just the very people whom we call Philistines. Culture says, "Consider these people, then, their way of life, their habits, their manners, the very tones of their voice; observe the literature they read, the things which give them pleasure, the words which come forth out of their mouths, the thoughts which make the furniture of their minds; would any amount of wealth be worth having on the condition that one was to become just like these people by having it?" And thus culture begets a dissatisfaction which saves the future, as one may hope, from being vulgarized, even if it cannot save the present.

Quotation in expository passage

Right (quotation narrated in an expository passage):

A policy of this limited, practical order was not only best suited to the England of her day, but was eminently suited to Elizabeth's peculiar powers. "No war, my lords," the Queen used to cry imperiously at

the council board, "no war!" But her hatred of war sprang less from her aversion to blood or to expense than from the fact that peace left the field open to the diplomatic intrigues in which she excelled.

Quotation in persuasive context

Right (quotation narrated in a persuasive passage):

The party which to-day nominates Captain Kidd will to-morrow nominate Judas Iscariot; and to-morrow, as to-day, party spirit will spurn you as a traitor for refusing to sell your master. "I tell you," said an ardent and well-meaning partisan, "I tell you this is a nasty state, and I hope we have done nasty work enough to carry it." But if your state has been carried by nasty means this year, success will require nastier next year, and the nastiest means will always carry it.

Dialogue

589. Rule 584 should be especially observed in the report of a conversation; each speech, regardless of length, should be paragraphed separately.

WRONG:

"When did you arrive?" I asked. "An hour ago," he answered. "Didn't you get my letter?" "No." "Strange," he said.

Right:

"When did you arrive?" I asked.

"An hour ago," he answered. "Didn't you get my letter?"

"No."

"Strange," he said.

Paragraphing of narrative as affected by Rule 584

590. In narrative a thought-component which might advantageously be presented with particular distinctness as a whole, cannot (on account of Rule 584) be embodied in a single paragraph if it contains several quotations or some quoted and some original matter. But the beginning and the end of such a thought-component can be, and should be, marked by paragraph divisions.

For example, consider the following extract from a story:

He washed at the pump, while the girl, in her attempt to be hospitable, held the clean towel for him.

"You're purty well used up, eh?" he said to her.

"Yes; it's awful hot out there."

"Can't you lay off this afternoon? It ain't right."
"No; *he* won't listen to that."
"Well, let me take your place."
"No; there ain't any use o' that."
Peterson, a brawny, wide-bearded Norwegian, came up at this moment, and spoke to Rob in a sullen, gruff way.
"Hallo. Whan yo' gaet back?"
"To-day. He ain't very glad to see me," said Rob, winking at Julia. "He ain't bilin' over with enthusiasm. But I c'n stand it, for your sake," he added with amazing assurance; but the girl had turned away, and it was wasted.
At the table he ate heartily of the "bean swaagen," which filled a large wooden bowl in the center of the table, and which was ladled into smaller wooden bowls at each place. Rob kept on safe subjects, mainly asking questions about the crops of Peterson, and when addressing the girl, inquired of her schoolmates. By skillful questioning he kept the subject of marriage uppermost, and seemingly was getting an inventory of the girls not yet married or engaged.

The first seventeen lines of this extract constitute a thought-component which should be distinguished from the matter preceding and following, since it presents one particular scene of the drama — the scene at the well. This thought-component is, on account of the direct quotations, not embodied in a single paragraph; yet its beginning ("He washed at the pump" in line 1) is marked by a paragraph division, and its end ("it was wasted" in line 17) is marked by the fact that the next statement ("At the table" etc. in line 18) begins a new paragraph.

EXERCISES

Exercises in Manuscript-arrangement

Indention

601. Study Rules 26–33. Write out the following passage, dividing your copy into ten paragraphs as the original is divided.

"There is only one thing more wanted to make me happy," continued the newcomer, "and that is a little baccy, which I am sorry to say I am out of."

"I'll fill your pipe," said the shepherd.

"I must ask you to lend me a pipe likewise."

"A smoker, and no pipe about 'ee?"

"I have dropped it somewhere on the road."

The shepherd filled and handed him a new clay pipe, saying as he did so, "Hand me your baccy-box; I'll fill that too, now I am about it."

The man went through the movement of searching his pockets.

"Lost that too?" said his entertainer with some surprise.

"I am afraid so," said the man with some confusion. "Give it to me in a screw of paper."

Lighting his pipe at the candle with a suction that drew the whole flame into the bowl, he resettled himself in the corner.

Writing verse

602. Study Rules 34, 35, 213. Copy the following verses:

Blissful, they turned them to go; but the fair-tressed Pallas Athené
Rose, like a pillar of tall white cloud, toward silver Olympus,
Far above ocean and shore, and the peaks of the isles and the mainland,
Where no frost nor storm is, in clear blue windless abysses,
High in the home of the summer, the seats of the happy Immortals.

KINGSLEY.

603. Study Rules 34, 36, 213. Copy the following stanza:

Like a poet hidden
In the light of thought,
Singing hymns unbidden,
Till the world is wrought
To sympathy with hopes and fears it heeded not.

SHELLEY.

604. Study Rules 34–36, 213. Copy the following stanza: Writing verse

And yet these days of subtler air and finer
Delight,
When lovelier looks the darkness, and diviner
The light —
The gift they give of all these golden hours,
Whose urn
Pours forth reverberate rays or shadowing showers,
In turn —
Clouds, beams, and winds that make the live day's track
Seem living —
What were they did no spirit give them back
Thanksgiving? SWINBURNE.

605. Study Rules 34–36, 213. Copy the following stanza:

Hence, loathèd Melancholy,
Of Cerberus and blackest Midnight born,
In Stygian cave forlorn,
'Mongst horrid shapes, and shrieks, and sights unholy!
Find out some uncouth cell,
Where brooding Darkness spreads his jealous wings,
And the night-raven sings;
There, under ebon shades, and low-brow'd rocks,
As ragged as thy locks,
In dark Cimmerian desert ever dwell.
MILTON.

606. Study Rules 34–37, 213. Write out the following passage, arranging the quotations correctly: Quoted poetry

With the lines "hard by a cottage chimney smokes from betwixt two aged oaks" the scene changes. In contrast to the "towers and battlements," "bosom'd high in tufted trees," Milton now shows us a humble farmstead, and pictures the lives of the peasants who live there. The husband has come in from the fields; it is his noonday resting time, and he and his wife "are at their savoury dinner set of herbs and other country messes." And after the meal we see them resuming the day's work — binding the sheaves and tossing the hay — the wife working beside the husband. At last evening comes; and now, perhaps, they go to a country dance, where the fiddler's tunes "sound to many a youth and many a maid dancing in the chequer'd shade."

NOTE. — The quotations are from the following part of *L'Allegro:*

Towers and battlements it sees
Bosom'd high in tufted trees,
Where perhaps some beauty lies,

The Cynosure of neighbouring eyes.
Hard by, a cottage chimney smokes
From betwixt two aged oaks,
Where Corydon and Thyrsis, met,
Are at their savoury dinner set
Of herbs, and other country messes,
Which the neat-handed Phillis dresses;
And then in haste her bower she leaves,
With Thestylis to bind the sheaves;
Or, if the earlier season lead,
To the tann'd haycock in the mead.
Sometimes with secure delight
The upland hamlets will invite,
When the merry bells ring round,
And the jocund rebecks sound
To many a youth, and many a maid,
Dancing in the chequer'd shade.

Exercises in Spelling

Doubling of final consonants: Miscellaneous words

607. Study Rules 52–56. Write the following pairs of words:

bid	sad	man	quiz
bidden	sadder	mannish	quizzes
	saddest		
fat		clan	whiz
fatten	glad	clannish	whizzes
	gladder		
rot	gladdest	red	Bob
rotten		reddish	Bobby
sad	fat	Scot	Tom
sadden	fatter	Scottish	Tommy
	fattest		
glad		sot	god
gladden	flat	sottish	goddess
flat	flatter	bat	occur
flatten	flattest	batter	occurrence

Miscellaneous verbs

608. Study Rules 52, 53. Write the infinitive, the present participle, and the past participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *stop*, *stopping*, *stopped*): *rob*, *crib*, *stab*, *bed*, *bud*, *beg*, *flog*, *sprig*, *rig*, *hem*, *ram*, *hum*, *plan*, *skin*, *shun*, *pin*, *rip*, *drop*, *stop*, *grip*, *tip*, *equip*, *dip*, *whip*, *slip*, *scar*, *mar*, *debar*, *occur*, *demur*, *prefer*, *refer*, *confer*, *bat*, *pet*, *rot*, *flit*, *quit*, *regret*, *omit*, *commit*, *permit*, *admit*, *repel*, *propel*, *compel*, *expel*, *impel*. Write the infinitive and the present participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *sit*, *sitting*): *bid*, *rid*, *shed*, *dig*, *run*, *begin*, *spin*, *swim*, *win*, *sit*, *set*, *bet*, *get*, *let*, *cut*, *hit*, *put*, *shut*, *split*.

609. Study Rules 52, 53. Write the infinitive, the present participle, and the past participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *rob*, *robbing*, *robbed*) : *rob*, *crib*, *stab*, *bud*, *beg*, *flog*, *rig*, *ram*, *hem*, *hum*. Write the infinitive and the present participle of each of the following : *shed*, *bid*, *dig*, *swim*. Miscellaneous monosyllabic verbs

610. Study Rules 52, 53. Write the infinitive, the present participle, and the past participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *occur*, *occurring*, *occurred*) : *occur*, *demur*, *concur*, *prefer*, *refer*, *confer*, *deter*, *scar*, *mar*, *war*, *spur*, *slur*. Verbs in *r*

611. Study Rules 52, 53. Write the infinitive, the present participle, and the past participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *drop*, *dropping*, *dropped*) : *drop*, *stop*, *rip*, *grip*, *tip*, *dip*, *whip*, *slip*, *slap*, *lap*, *flap*, *rap*, *mop*, *sup*, *equip*. Verbs in *p*

612. Study Rules 52, 53. Write the infinitive, the present participle, and the past participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *omit*, *omitting*, *omitted*) : *omit*, *commit*, *permit*, *admit*, *emit*, *intermit*, *submit*, *regret*, *flit*, *rot*, *pet*, *bat*. Write the infinitive and the present participle of the following verbs : *sit*, *set*, *bet*, *get*, *let*, *wet*, *hit*, *cut*, *put*, *shut*, *split*, *spit*, *quit*. Verbs in *t*

613. Study Rules 52, 53. Write the infinitive, the present participle, and the past participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *plan*, *planning*, *planned*) : *plan*, *skin*, *shun*, *pin*, *pen*, *fan*, *tan*, *sin*, *dun*. Write the infinitive and the present participle of each of the following : *run*, *begin*, *win*, *spin*. Verbs in *n*

614. Study Rule 60. Write the infinitive, the participle, the present third singular, and the past of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *traffic*, *trafficking*, *traffics*, *trafficked*) : *traffic*, *frolic*, *picnic*, *physic*, *shellac*. *Trafficked* etc.

615. Study Rule 61. Write the following words, together with the adjectives ending in *able* derived from them (*e.g.*, *love*, *lovable*) : *love*, *excuse*, *believe*, *sale*, *deplore*, *appease*, *use*, *forgive*, *live*. Dropping final *e* : Before *able*

616. Study Rule 61. Write the infinitive and the present participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *place*, *placing*) : *place*, *grace*, *shade*, *recede*, *abide*, *oblige*, *bulge*, *strike*, *bake*, *take*, *come*, *home*, *shine*, *dine*, *arrange*, *slope*, *scrape*, *pore*, *scare*, *please*, *seize*, *lose*, *write*, *bite*, *procrastinate*, *grate*, *hate*, *have*, *strive*, *rove*, *rave*. Before *ing*

Final *e* retained: *Courageous* etc.

617. Study Rule 62. Write each of the following words together with its derivative ending in *ous* (*e.g.*, *courage, courageous*): *courage, advantage, outrage, umbrage.* Write each of the following words together with its derivative ending in *able* (*e.g.*, *notice, noticeable*): *notice, peace, manage, change.*

Before *ly*

618. Study Rule 63. Write the following words together with their derivatives in *ly* (*e.g.*, *severe, severely*): *severe, complete, separate, lone, wise, fine, intimate, infinite, definite, adequate, polite, resolute, immense, mere, state, fierce, rude, respective, active, furtive, acute, remote.*

Before *ful, less, ment, ness*

619. Study Rule 63. Write the following groups of words:

use	tune	fierce
useful	tuneful	fierceness
useless	tuneless	remote
	rude	remoteness
hope	rudeness	noise
hopeful		noiseless
hopeless	polite	hate
	politeness	hateful
care		
careful	acute	move
careless	acuteness	movement

Final *y*: Plurals in *ies* and *eys*

620. Study Rule 64. Write the singular and the plural of each of the following nouns (*e.g.*, *lady, ladies; valley, valleys*): *lady, body, buggy, lily, folly, dummy, ninny, company, harmony, copy, berry, library, century, country, courtesy, city, party, frivolity, valley, monkey, chimney, money, pulley, volley, kidney, trolley, donkey, galley, attorney.*

Verbs

621. Study Rule 65. Write the first and third persons, present indicative, and the first person past, of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *I cry, he cries, I cried*): *cry, fly, fry, try, apply, supply, defy, deny, satisfy, classify, hurry, marry, carry, tarry, bury.*

Business etc.

622. Study Rule 66. Write the following pairs of words:

happy	happi-ness
rosy	rosi-ness
fluffy	fluffi-ness
crazy	crazi-ness
dizzy	dizzi-ness
lonely	loneli-ness
busy	busi-ness

623. Study Rule 66. Write the following pairs of words: Miscellaneous suffixes

[illegible]rry	beauty	necessary	happy
[illegible]rriage	beautiful	necessarily	happily
			happiness
[illegible]arry	bounty	noisy	
[illegible]arriage	bountiful	noisily	
			weary
[illegible]ercy	merry	hearty	wearily
[illegible]erciful	merrily	heartily	weariness
[illegible]erciless	merriment	heartiness	

624. Study Rule 67. Write three times each the infinitive and the present participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *lie*, *lying*): *lie*, *die*, *tie*, *vie*. *Lying* etc.

625. Study Rule 68. Write the infinitive and the present participle of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *study*, *studying*): *study*, *hurry*, *tarry*, *worry*, *carry*, *scurry*, *bury*, *steady*. *Studying* etc.

626. Study Rule 69. Write the following words together with their derivatives in *ness* (*e.g.*, *sudden*, *suddenness*): *sudden*, *rotten*, *sodden*, *stubborn*, *drunken*, *wooden*, *sullen*. *Suddenness* etc.

627. Study Rule 70. Write each of the following words, together with its derivative in *ly* (*e.g.*, *final*, *finally*): *final*, *usual*, *actual*, *continual*, *principal*, *practical*, *casual*, *general*, *oral*, *original*, *occasional*, *special*, *partial*. Adverbs in *lly*: *Finally* etc.

628. Study Rules 71 and 72. Write each of the following words together with its derivative in *ally* (*e.g.*, *accident*, *accidentally*): *accident*, *incident*, *heroic*, *poetic*, *dramatic*, *prosaic*, *occasion*, *intention*, *artistic*, *exception*. *Accidentally* etc.

629. Rule 73. Write the singular and the plural of each of the following nouns (*e.g.*, *bead*, *beads*; *box*, *boxes*): *bead*, *road*, *leak*, *freak*, *wheel*, *pail*, *beam*, *seam*, *screen*, *steep*, *leap*, *paradox*, *hiss*, *heir*, *fair*, *repair*, *pass*, *glass*, *beet*, *boat*, *boot*, *flash*, *crash*, *cow*, *row*, *crow*, *dish*, *box*, *tract*, *train*, *group*, *need*, *accent*, *shoulder*, *offer*, *answer*, *manner*, *murmur*, *passenger*, *messenger*, *chamber*, *invader*, *wonder*, *travel*, *equal*, *quarrel*, *rebel*, *display*, *play*, *array*, *view*, *joy*, *boy*, *law*, *saw*. Plurals in *s* and *es*

630. Study Rule 74. Write the following words together with their plurals (*e.g.*, *leaf*, *leaves*): *leaf*, *thief*, *sheaf*, *wife*, *life*, *knife*, *half*, *calf*, *wolf*, *loaf*, *shelf*, *elf*, *self*. Plurals in *ves*

631. Study Rule 77. Write the indicative present first and third persons singular of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *refer*, *refers*): *refer*, *deem*, *claim*, *gleam*, *disdain*, *feel*, *squeal*, *pass*, *rush*, *differ*, *assign*, *toss*, *gash*, *miss*, *fix*, *eat*, *twist*, *repair*, Present third singulars in *s* and *es*

seem, succeed, proceed, train, grab, happen, hear, heed, ope perform, reform, conform, interrupt, meet, need, repe absorb, accept, appear, appoint, discern, distract, dire attract, drown, govern, ascend, descend, attempt, conne erect, exclaim, proclaim, complain, exhaust, exist, explai answer, falter, offer, chamber, consider, remember, wond refer, confer, occur, defer, transfer, infer, prefer, prop quarrel, equal, travel, view, enjoy, allow, display, play, s obey, saw, sew, sow, row, crow, tow, annoy, destroy.

The adjective ending *ful*

632. Study Rule 78. Write the following adjectives, o serving that in all, the ending is not *full*, but *ful: usefu beautiful, careful, merciful, joyful, awful, skillful, hopefu vengeful, mournful, cheerful, wonderful, delightful.*

The adjective ending *ous*

633. Study Rule 79. Write the following words, obser ing that in all, the ending is not *us*, but *ous: humorou courageous, plenteous, mischievous, simultaneous, miscel laneous, pretentious, luminous, ridiculous, grievous, glori ous, bounteous, outrageous, hideous, heinous, troublous, garrulous, bibulous.*

Inflection of verbs in *le*

634. Study Rules 80 *a* and 80 *b*. Write the infinitive, the present participle, the present third singular, and the past of each of the following verbs (*e.g.*, *settle, settling, settles, settled*): *settle, handle, enable, cradle, ennoble, saddle, tremble, twinkle, sparkle, tumble, wrestle, paddle, whistle, huddle, fondle, dazzle.*

Already etc.

635. Study Rule 82. Write each of the following words three times, observing that in all of them the prefix is *al: already, altogether, almost, also, always.*

Accept and *except*

636. Study Rule 85. (*a*) Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *accept* or *except:* 1. I would ——— the offer, ——— for my religious scruples. 2. He is the best pianist in Europe; I do not ——— even Liszt. 3. Most of the rebels were offered pardon and ———ed it; but the leaders were ———ed from the offer. 4. He burned all the household goods, not ———ing even the heirlooms. 5. Why did you ——— Charles from your invitation? He wouldn't have ———ed anyway.

(*b*) Write five short sentences using *accept* and five using *except.*

Advice, advise, device, devise

637. Study Rule 86. (*a*) Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *advice* or *advise:* 1. I ——— you to buy. 2. He was ———d not to take the lawyer's ———. 3. A message from his ———r brought important ———s.

4. He ———d me, and I thought it best to follow his ———.

Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *device* or *devise:* 5. It is an ingenious ———, but can't we ——— a better one? 6. Many ———s were employed. 7. He ———d a machine. 8. The ———s and desires of our hearts.

(*b*) Write five short sentences using *advice*, five using *advise*, five using *device*, and five using *devise*.

638. Study Rule 87. (*a*) Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *affect* or *effect:* 1. That statement is true, but it does not ——— the case. 2. The failure of the bank did not ——— his equanimity. 3. The admonition of the dean had a good ———. 4. The generals ———ed a junction, but this action had no ——— on the enemy. 5. His brooding ———ed his health. 6. The utmost efforts of his physician could not ——— a cure. *Affect* and *effect*

(*b*) Write five short sentences using *affect*, five using the noun *effect*, and five using the verb *effect*.

639. Study Rule 88. (*a*) Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *already* or *all ready*. After each sentence state in parenthesis the construction[1] of the expression supplied. 1. ——— the train was moving. 2. Are you ——— dressed? 3. Well, fellows, are you ———? 4. The milkman has ——— gone. 5. We are ——— to start. 6. The carpenter is ——— to begin his work. 7. My plan is ——— formed. 8. Is my room ———? 9. The house was ———, but no guests had arrived. 10. Preparations were ——— complete, but no guests had come. *Already* and *all ready*

(*b*) Write five sentences using *already*, and five using *all ready*.

640. See *Angle* and *Angel* on page 37. Write five short sentences using *angel* and five using *angle*. *Angel* and *angle*

641. See *Clothes* and *Cloths* on page 40. Write five short sentences using *cloths* and ten using *clothes*. *Clothes* and *cloths*

642. See *Costume* and *Custom* on page 42. Write five sentences using *costume*, five using *custom*, and five using *accustomed*. *Costume* and *custom*

643. See *Drown* on page 44. Write three sentences using *drown*, three using *drowns*, five using *drowning*, and five using *drowned*. *Drown* and *drowned*

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

Formerly and *formally*

644. See *Formerly* and *Formally* on page 46. Write ten short sentences using *formerly* and ten using *formally*.

Hear and *here*

645. See *Hear* and *Here* on page 48. Write ten sentences using *hear* and ten using *here*.

Incident

646. See *Incident* on page 49. Write ten short sentences using *incident* and five using *incidents*.

Later and *latter*

647. See *Later* and *Latter* on page 50. Write five short sentences using *later* and five using *latter*.

Lead and *led*

648. Study Rule 89. The principal parts of *lead* are *lead, led, led*. (*a*) Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *lead* or *led*: 1. He met me and ——— me in. 2. They will ——— us astray, as our friends were ——— astray. 3. It was this act that ——— to his success. 4. I was ——— to think that this would ——— to misfortune. 5. If she had asked me to ———, I should have ———.

(*b*) Write five short sentences using *lead* and ten using *led*.

Lose and *loose*

649. Study Rule 90. *Lose* is a verb; *loose* is an adjective. (*a*) Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *lose* or *loose*. Before *ing* drop the final *e* of the word supplied. 1. The screw is ———. 2. Don't ——— it. 3. If it gets ———, you will ——— it. 4. His coat is ———r than yours, but mine is the ———st of all. 5. By ———ing his ——— change, the ———-jointed traveler suffered. 6. Turn him ———; there's no danger of ———ing him.

(*b*) Write five short sentences using *lose*, five using *losing*, five using *loose* (adjective).

Past and *passed*

650. See *Passed* and *Past* on page 53. Write ten sentences using *passed* and ten using *past*.

Principal and *principle*

651. Study Rule 93. (*a*) Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *principal* or *principle*: 1. The ——— street runs north. 2. The ——— of the school was a man of strong ———s. 3. The ——— involved is what I ———ly object to. 4. It was against his ———s to use more than the interest; the ——— he kept intact. 5. His ——— occupation was to master the ———s of geometry.

(*b*) Write five sentences using *principal* correctly and five using *principle* correctly.

652. Study Rule 94. Write the following words, observing the variations in the spelling of the last syllable: *Proceed, precede,* etc.

precede	proceed (*but* procedure)	supersede
recede	exceed	
concede	succeed	
intercede		

653. Study Rule 95. Write five short sentences using *precede*, five using *proceed*, five using *preceding*, and five using *proceeding*. Meaning of *proceed* and *precede*

654. See *Quiet* and *Quite* on page 55. Write five sentences using *quiet* and five using *quite*. *Quiet* and *quite*

655. Study Rule 96. Copy the following: *Receive, believe,* etc.

Ce*i*lia	rec*ei*ve	rec*ei*pt
Ce*i*lia	bel*ie*ve	bel*ie*f
Ce*i*lia	dec*ei*ve	dec*ei*t
Ce*i*lia	rel*ie*ve	rel*ie*f
Ce*i*lia	conc*ei*ve	conc*ei*t
Ce*i*lia	perc*ei*ve	

656. See *Than* and *Then* on page 60. Write ten sentences using *than* and ten using *then*. *Than* and *then*

657. See *Their* and *There* on page 60. Write five sentences using *their*, five using *there* in the sense of *in that place*, and five using *there* as an adverbial expletive.[1] *Their* and *there*

658. Study Rule 97. *Too* is an adverb; it means *excessively* (as "He is too weak") or *also*. *To* is a preposition, and also the sign of the infinitive. *Two* is a number (= 2). Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *too*, *to*, or *two*: 1. It is ——— weak ——— withstand ——— winters. 2. He thought the ——— men were ——— harsh, and I thought so ———. 3. ——— say that, is ——— say a thing with ——— meanings. 4. He was ——— miles from home and was hungry ———. 5. I ——— wish ——— dispute your ——— statements. 6. ——— take one would be ——— uncharitable; it would be cruel ——— take ———. 7. Come with you? I don't want ———. 8. I suppose I ought ——— go, but I hate ———. *Too, to,* and *two*

659. Study Rule 97. Write fifteen short sentences using in each, respectively, one of the following words preceded by *too* (*e.g.*, "The odor is too sweet for my taste"): *sweet*, *Too*

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

long, sad, far, loud, heavy, cold, discouraging, much, violently, close, weak, many, dark, parsimonious.

Woman and *women*

660. See *Woman* and *Women* on page 62. Write five short sentences using *woman* and five using *women*.

All right

661. Study Rule 83. Write ten sentences using the expression *all right*.

Disappear and *dis-appoint*

662. Write the following words, observing that in each the prefix is not *diss*, but *dis: dis-appear, dis-appoint, dis-grace, dis-close, dis-gorge, dis-honor, dis-band, dis-locate, dis-dain, dis-turb.*

Professor etc.

663. Write the following words, observing that in each, the prefix is not *prof* but *pro: pro-fessor, pro-fession, pro-fessional, pro-fessionally, pro-fessorial, pro-fess, pro-fessed, pro-vide, pro-found, pro-voke, pro-tect, pro-nounce, pro-ceed, pro-boscis.*

Dictation exercises in spelling

664. *Sentences to be written at dictation.* 1. The embarrassed sophomore proceeded with his impromptu speech. 2. The principal danger, he believed, was that his partner would lose his self-possession. 3. He was not surprised; similar incidents had often occurred formerly. 4. The courageous villain proved equal to the occasion. 5. The prisoner, after bribing the guard, slipped out and disappeared across the boundary. 6. The officer rapidly pursued him, firing as he ran. 7. Too much riding and driving had a bad effect on his studies. 8. Occasionally he committed deceitful and unbecoming acts in the course of his business. 9. The operation of the new rule will affect the legal profession beneficially. 10. The necessity of thorough preparation will incidentally have a good effect on the law schools. 11. Macaulay is recognized universally as the equal of any preceding writer of history. 12. An awkward question of privilege arising, the matter was referred temporarily to a committee. 13. The effect of the young orator's speech was instantaneous. 14. The village is laid out symmetrically according to a plan similar to that already referred to. 15. There are numerous specimens of his writing in the libraries of all the principal cities. 16. He who relies on the word of a sophomore or a professor is sure to be disappointed. 17. Don't lose sight of the principles of grammar. 18. The principal of the grammar school advised his boys to arrange occasionally for games with teams in neighboring cities. 19. After conferring with the principal creditors, I was led to believe that they were planning to bring suit for

ıe payment of both the interest and the principal of the ıortgage. 20. I could not keep any discipline among them, ırprised and terrified as they were. I therefore divided hem into two separate parties and led them to a quiet place rhere they might have an opportunity to recover their self-ossession. 21. Without stopping to care for their dying omrades, the forty guardsmen, ill equipped as they were, vent running up the sloping field, hemmed in the sentries, aized the outposts, and compelled the enemy to surrender. 22. Proving utterly unmanageable, he was whipped and inally expelled. 23. Having examined the case, I feel hope-ul for his life; it must be admitted, however, that he may ose an arm. 24. The French messenger hurried on, hoping o outstrip the English spy; but the horse on which the atter was riding was comparatively fresh, and soon had dis-ıppeared round a bend in the road. 25. First I tried to ıdvise him, but he would take no advice. Later, I applied ı walking stick to his back. This had a more beneficial effect than advice. 26. The priest, placing his hands on the altar, murmured some mysterious sentences in the Indian language. 27. I perceived that the road led to a dense forest. 28. The woman's tears did not affect his decision; he still pursued his original purpose. 29. If you happen accidentally to lose a receipt, he denies having received the money and tries to collect again. I can't conscientiously recommend him. 30. The rain was beginning to fall, and the lightning flashed continually. 31. The principal street of the village is parallel to the railroad. 32. There are few writers who have never committed a misspelling.

Exercises concerning Compound Words

Dictation exercises in hyphening (See Rules 102–124)

665. *A passage to be written at dictation.* Officer Callahan, a man of oxlike intellect (indeed, he is very ill educated and stupid, although well-meaning, perhaps), arrested my well-beloved bulldog, Touch-and-go, to-day, and gave him into the hands of Jensen the dog-catcher, who in turn passed him on to the pound master. My iron-jawed, short-haired favorite, dressed up as usual in his silver-studded collar, but wearing no muzzle, was according to his daily custom walking statelily down Hill Street. There in her flower garden Miss Josephine Jones, neat looking and daintily dressed, was tending her rosebushes; with her was her silky-haired, chicken-hearted setter, following her with its dovelike eyes or sometimes, in its scatter-brained fashion, chasing a butterfly. As Touch-and-go passed by the yard, this empty-headed butterfly-chaser danced up to him, leaping over the two-foot

wall that borders the yard, and noisily yelping, setter-like, to attract the newcomer's attention. This is a well-established fact; several passers-by saw and have testified that the setter was the aggressor. Miss Josephine, terror-stricken, raised an outcry, but it was too late; the setter was already fast in the vice-like grip of the bulldog. Now, the last-mentioned performer in this little comedy was only trying to teach the over-familiar puppy dog a much-needed lesson in good manners; but the tender-hearted mistress thought that the light-weight was about to be murdered by the heavy-weight. She therefore wrung her lily-white hands and shouted for the police. Police Officer Callahan, that bull-necked, round-bellied, heavy-footed peace-preserver, was about half a mile up the street, eating unpaid-for peanuts and conversing with a white-aproned nursemaid. With the speed of a steam roller and the self-important air of a general-in-chief, Callahan drew near and arrested Touch-and-go. The setter and his mistress comforted each other for a few minutes, and then the first-mentioned resumed his insect-chasing, and the second-mentioned her rosebush-tending. But, as above stated, Touch-and-go wore no muzzle, therein violating our strictly enforced city laws; so he was turned over to the above-mentioned dog-catcher, who, bidding a polite good-by to Miss Josephine, took him to the pound. I paid a twenty-dollar fine this afternoon and recovered my bow-legged hero. To-morrow he will wear that much-detested muzzle.

Awhile and *a while*

666. Study Rule 133. Write the following sentences, filling each blank with *a while* or *awhile*. After each sentence state in parenthesis the construction[1] of the expression supplied. 1. Stay ——— longer. 2. ——— ago there were not any houses here. 3. He stood ——— in thought. 4. I'll try it for ——— and see how it works. 5. I'll try it ———. 6. You'd better sleep ———.

Sometime and *some time*

667. Study Rule 134. Write the following sentences, filling each blank with *some time* or *sometime*. After each sentence state in parenthesis the construction[1] of the expression supplied. 1. I'll visit you ——— next summer. 2. There must have been a volcano here ———. 3. He came in last night and stayed ——— with us. 4. Be careful; ——— you'll get caught. 5. He pondered over the matter ———. 6. He pondered over the matter for ———. 7. ——— was spent in the examination of the books.

Anyway and *any way*

668. Study Rule 135. Write the following sentences, filling each blank with *any way* or *anyway*. In parenthesis

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

after each sentence, state the construction[1] of the expression supplied. 1. ——— you arrange it will suit me. 2. I can't explain it in ———. 3. Well, ———, what's the difference? 4. I don't care, ———. 5. They could not find ——— to gain entrance. 6. I'm not anxious; for, ———, he knows how to swim.

669. Study Rule 126. Write two short sentences using *myself*, two using *himself*, two using *herself*, two using *itself*, two using *themselves*, two using *oneself*, two using *ourselves*, two using *yourselves*. Solid: Words in *self*

670. Study Rules 126, 129. Write two short sentences using *whenever*, two using *wherever*, two using *whoever*, two using *whomever*, two using *however*, two using *whichever*, two using *whosoever*. Words in *ever*

671. Study Rule 129. Write ten short sentences using *together*. *Together*

672. Study Rule 129. Write two short sentences using *together*, two using *instead*, two using *moreover*, two using *nevertheless*, two using *inasmuch*, and two using *therefore*. *Together*, *instead*, etc.

673. Study Rule 132. Write two sentences using *everybody*, two using *anybody*, two using *nobody*, and two using *somebody*; two using *every one*, two using *any one*, two using *no one*, and two using *some one*. *Anybody*, *any one*, etc.

674. Study Rule 131. Write two sentences using *each other*, two using *on the other hand*, two using *in spite of*, two using *in fact*, two using *in order*. *Each other*, *in order*, etc.

675. *A passage to be written at dictation.* The farm where my grandfather and grandmother lived was an altogether delightful place. Whenever I think of my childhood, the picture comes to me of a white farmhouse, a spacious yard overshadowed by maples, and bordered by a main highway, a big red barn across the road with a windmill near by. This, as every one who lived in the neighborhood knew, was Fielding's farm. It was a long way outside the city limits; nevertheless, in spite of the distance, I sometimes walked out on a Saturday afternoon — often in fact. Sometimes my brother and I went together. We were very fond of each other in spite of the difference in our ages (he was at that time forty-one, and I was only twenty-nine), and therefore we always enjoyed ourselves very much throughout the Hyphened, solid, and separate to be determined (See Rules 125–139)

[1] See the Grammatical Vocabulary, pp. 360 ff.

journey. Instead of walking, we could have gone by railroad, for near our house there was a station of the Chalmersville Road—about two hundred yards, or six hundred feet away—six hundred and thirty-four, to be exact; and there was another about three eighths of a mile (that is, about two thousand feet, or six hundred and sixty yards) from grandfather's house. In fact, whenever the weather looked threatening, and every time it was actually raining, and we wanted to go out to the farm, we got inside one of those somewhat—well, I won't say those cars were dirty, but on the other hand, whoever said they were altogether clean would be overstating the fact—or perhaps I should say he was stating only one half of it. But where was I? Oh yes; we would take the train. Well, the train was always unbearably slow; moreover some one had to be put off at every station, and somebody had to be taken on at every other; and furthermore the engine could not go three quarters of a mile without stopping to take water. In spite of the boasted reputation of the Chalmersville Railroad, I believe that any time I cared to try, I could outstrip one of those trains on a bicycle. However, I digress. We took the train, I say, and in order to pass the time in some way (any way would do), we amused ourselves by sitting upright and staring out the window at whatever we might see. Not altogether uplifting, you say? No; nevertheless, it was better than getting wet. It was all right to walk to grandfather's when the weather was good, but not in the rain. As I said, however, we usually walked. Whenever I think of those walks we took together, I ask myself whether I should enjoy them again. And although I am now an old and, as you see, somewhat garrulous fellow (I am almost seventy-three now), nevertheless I am going back to the old homestead some day, and am going to try walking (all by myself this time) to grandfather's farm.

Exercise concerning Abbreviations

Abbreviations to be eliminated

676. Study Rules 140, 141. Rewrite the following sentences, substituting complete words for the improper abbreviations: 1. Walking north on Hamilton St., one sees the Schoolcraft Bldg. 2. On Aug. 15 I took the boat for South Haven, Mich. 3. I was employed as a shipping clerk by the Arbuckle Coffee Co. in Boston. 4. He got employment on the ranch of Witting Bros. in the southern part of Neb. 5. For four years I was employed by the Modern Steel Structural Co. in Waukesha, Wis. This co. secured the contract for the Majestic Bldg. in Milwaukee. 6. At Redwing,

linn., I rec'd my early education. 7. In the spring of 1905 obtained a position with the Sunset Telephone Co. and held ; until Sept. of that year, working chiefly in northern Cal. 'hen I went to Portland, Ore., and took in the Fair. . Among the charms of Hancock Co., Col., is a sublime iew of the distant, snowy peaks of the Rocky Mts. 9. In ug., 1907, I attended a co. fair in Pekin, Ill., and saw Dan 'atch win a race.

Exercise in the Representation of Numbers

677. *Sentences to be written at dictation.* 1. There are 2,563 grammar schools in the United States. 2. He walked mile and one eighth in twenty-six minutes. 3. The thirty-ourth name happened to be Smith. 4. It is two hundred niles away. 5. The two-hundred-and-seventh day of this 'ear will be Friday. 6. The veto was overruled by a three-ourths majority. 7. Three fourths of the people there are talians. 8. The three-mile march was too much for Abner.). The proportions are as follows: Jews, 20 per cent; Greeks, 10 per cent; Portuguese, 5 per cent; Italians, 25 per cent; Germans, 40 per cent. 10. From June 17, 1906, to May 6, 1908, I lived at 23 Covington Place. 11. On the seventh page I found a reference to page 72 of volume 3. 12. At nine o'clock on next Friday night, August 23, I shall be twenty-one years old. I shall then be in possession of sixty thousand dollars, of which I will give fifteen cents to charity. 13. Thirty-four thousand, six hundred and eighty-one dollars and twenty cents is the sum he spent during the Christmas vacation. 14. Fourteen thousand, five hundred and one men are employed here.

Figures or words to be determined (See Rules 136–139, 149–167)

Exercises in Syllabication

678. Study Rules 173-183. Write each of the following words on two lines, showing how it may be correctly divided at the end of a line. For example:

Syllabication:

re-	remem-
member	ber
in-	incom-
complete	plete

A. *gradual, genuine, signal, crimson, ridiculous, cholera, popular, optimist, emphasis, comparison, philosophy, quarrel, censure, recognize, depression, melancholy, deduction, inference, gorgeous, purple, frivolous, summon, energetic, scientific, engineering, geniality, artificiality, hypocrite,*

Miscellaneous

Syllabication: *condemnation, automatic, unconscious, prominence, happiness, justifiable, immeasurable, innumerable, intelligent, comparatively, contemporary, elaborate, suspicion, manufacture, civilization, hostility, unfriendliness, conjunction, contradiction, vulgarity, attempt, revenge, weakness, account.*

Prefixes B. *depict, entire, expend, admire, convene, detest, inspire, intervene, obscure, postpone, submit, superstitious, expound, beguile, forlorn, address, endure, conscript, catalogue, epitaph, detail, infuse, intersperse, oblige, postscript, object, prevail, subject, anagram, explain, becoming, epigram, advert, confuse, devotion, increase, interesting, oblique, provoke, prescribe, substitute, explicit, behave, programme, forgive, impossible, adduce, impose, undutiful, unnatural, infrequent, unnecessary, existence, behind, exquisite, untamed, inaccessible.*

Suffixes C. *kindly, shaving, peaceable, preferment, healthful, sweeter, pianist, heartless, payable, heaviest, goodness, wholesome, wholly, bowing, serviceable, winsome, instrument, mournful, commitment, weaker, thoughtless, organist, wearisome, perishable, wretched, blackest, delightful, brightness, preference, homeless, cruelly, actually, tuneful, blooming, convertible, blithesome, unnamable, discernment, harmful, sacrament, colder, friendless, warmest, daintiness, darkness, violinist, fearless.*

Doubled consonants D. *sinner, flannel, cellar, robber, saddest, goddess, ripple, giggle, trammel, carriage, assist, rattan, accede, aggravate, session, possession, passion, jabber, accident, affable, traffic, allude, illusion, glimmer, runner, slippery, terror, assist, pressure, intermittent, commit, battalion, dazzling, gibber, flaccid, raddish, stiffen, braggart, distillery, mummery, nunnery, horrible, borrow, barrel, fissure, aggressive, lissom, Prussian, passive, fitting, flutter.*

Digraphs E. *Catherine, strengthen, splashing, hydrophobia, singing, alignment, switchboard, doughnut, roughness, bother, ruthless, fisherman, cashier, Berkshire, telephone, diaphanous, antithesis, Shoshone, clangor, danger, signpost, Litchfield, neighbor, coughing, nothing, smother, gathering, finishing, paraphrase, wrongful, latchet, ploughman, laughter.*

Exercises in Capitalizing

Days and months **679.** Study Rule 184. Write a composition about a calendar, using the names of all the days of the week, all the months, and the four seasons.

680. Study Rule 198. Write the following sentences, filling the blanks with *English*, *French*, *German*, *Latin*, *Greek*, *Dutch*, *Indian*, or *Spanish*: 1. In the battle the ——— captain met a ——— corporal. 2. Some ——— and ——— books entertained him, while he drank ——— wine and smoked a ——— pipe. 3. The ——— ships were destroyed by the ———, assisted by their ——— allies. Race and language

Write two short sentences, using the word *Greek*, two using *Latin*, two using *Italian*, two using *Indian*, two using *French*, two using *German*, two using *English*, two using *Irish*, two using *Dutch*, two using *Norwegian*, and two using *Russian*.

681. *An exercise to be written at dictation.* My friend Professor Cincinnatus Jones gives instruction in oratory, history, algebra, and swimming in the Kansas City College of Agriculture. Many young men from the West and the South come under his enlightening influence every year. The president of the agricultural college just referred to secured Professor Jones when the latter was employed by the Department of Agriculture in Washington. The Secretary of Agriculture, by the way, was a Democrat, as was the patriotic President in whose Cabinet he had the honor of sitting; the professor also happened to belong to the Democratic Party. Now, the president of the college — President Francis X. Fitzgibbons, Ph.D., LL.D. — went up to Jefferson City, the capital of the state, to consult with the governor. That staunch old Republican, Governor Mannington, was in office at that time. He was visiting ex-Governor Hemstead on Clinton Avenue when President Fitzgibbons arrived. The president took a street car and went straight to the house where the governor was. Now, the mayor of the city, a Socialist, several members of the state senate and house, most of them Prohibitionists, the chief of police, a Populist, and seven aldermen of various political faiths happened to be calling on the ex-governor at the same time. In walks President Fitz and says, Dictation exercise in capitalization (See Rules 184–202)

"Governor, will you help me get Jones for a professorship in my faculty?"

"Jones?" says the governor. "Major General Jones, formerly pastor of the First Baptist Church?"

"No. I mean C. Jones, assistant clerk in the Department of Agriculture, author of *How to Make Corn Grow* and also of *Why I Am a Bee-keeper*."

"Oh yes, that clever Scotchman. His grandfather was a colonel in the Mexican War, wasn't he?"

"Yes, and beloved by all his regiment — privates, corpo-

rals, sergeants, lieutenants, captains, and majors alike. And his grandson is worthy of him. But Governor, I don't want to conceal the fact that he is a Democrat."

"I swear by the Book, Doctor," said the governor, "I don't care if he is the chief doorkeeper of Tammany Hall, on Fourteenth Street, New York City; I will get him for you."

At that, all the assembled men clapped their hands, and a German politician, a member of the city council and the proprietor of a vaudeville theater on East Twenty-ninth Street, remarked that this was a second Missouri Compromise.

Next day — it was Friday — Governor Mannington went east to Washington and lifted Jones bodily from the government service. He came west again in no time, bringing the new professor with him, on the Santa Fé Railroad. Jones spent the summer in preparing his first lectures, and began his professional duties in the following autumn.

Exercise in Italicizing

Literary titles

682. Study Rules 202, 216–222. Write the following passage, capitalizing and italicizing correctly:

Dickens's a tale of two cities is to me more interesting than Hugo's the toilers of the sea. But Scott's the talisman is better than either. The New York sun and the journal of psychology are less interesting than the damnation of Theron Ware by Harold Frederick. As for Burns's the cotter's Saturday night — well, Dombey and son is far superior. But I fear that, like the porter in Macbeth, I am rambling.

Exercises in Punctuation

Discrimination of End and Interior Punctuation

Discrimination of end and interior punctuation

683. Study Rules 243, 245, 246. The following is the Primary Rule of Punctuation: **The period should be used** (as a separative mark) **only to separate one complete independent predication from another; the comma should be used only to separate one member from another within a complete independent predication.** Tell whether this rule is observed or violated in each of the expressions below. In answering the question in regard to each expression, use the following form:

The first expression ("It offers" etc.) is a single complete independent predication; its subject is "it"; its predicate is "offers"; "at the same time affording oppor-

nity for literary study" is a participial phrase, not a mplete independent predication. The period, therefore, olates the Primary Rule of punctuation. The expression ould be punctuated as follows: "It offers a course for ose who wish to study painting, at the same time afford- g opportunity for literary study."

Discrimination of end and interior punctuation

The second expression ("The care" etc.) is a single complete independent predication; its subject is "care"; its redicate is "requires"; "while electric lights give the ousekeeper no trouble" is a dependent clause. The period fter "labor," therefore, violates the Primary Rule. The xpression should be punctuated as follows: "The care of il lamps requires every day some disagreeable labor, while lectric lights give the housekeeper no trouble."

The third expression ("The winter" etc.) is composed of wo complete independent predications: (1) "The winter as not been very severe" (subject, "winter"; predicate, 'has been") and (2) "the temperature has averaged orty-one degrees" (subject, "temperature"; predicate, 'has averaged"). Therefore the comma after "severe" olates the Primary Rule of punctuation. The expression hould be punctuated thus: "The winter has not been very evere. The temperature has averaged forty-one degrees."

The fourth expression ("That may be true" etc.) is a ingle complete independent predication. It is a compound redication, composed of the independent predication "That nay be true" (subject, "that"; predicate, "may be") and he independent predication "it does not affect the case" subject, "it"; predicate, "does affect"), joined by the onjunction "but." Since it is a single complete independent predication, the comma after "true" conforms to the Primary Rule.

In the same way comment on expressions 5–24 following, nd rewrite all that you find incorrect.

1. It offers a course for those who wish to study painting. At the same time affording opportunity for literary study. [Right or wrong?]

2. The care of oil lamps requires every day some disagreeable labor. While electric lights give the housekeeper no rouble. [Right or wrong?]

3. The winter has not been very severe, the temperature has averaged forty-one degrees. [Right or wrong?]

4. That may be true, but it does not affect the case. [Right or wrong?]

5. I regard the measure as the best that could be adopted under the circumstances. Though it must doubtless offend some people. [Right or wrong?]

Discrimination of end and interior punctuation

6. I think the plan you propose is by far the best one I follow. Though all the others oppose it I will give it my f support. [Right or wrong?]

7. Mr. Hathaway was usually called "the Indian" by h familiar friends. The name being suggested by his da complexion and his gravity. [Right or wrong?]

8. The family living on the ground floor had to keep th walk clear of snow during the winter, while those who live in the upper apartments were free of any such obligatio [Right or wrong?]

9. The family on the ground floor had to clear the sno away. No such obligation was imposed on those in th upper apartments. [Right or wrong?]

10. In all his conduct Hector seems to be actuated by tw noble ambitions. To defend his country and to be held i honor by his countrymen. [Right or wrong?]

11. She busied herself for a while in putting the goods i order. The bottles on the lower shelf and the boxes on th second. [Right or wrong?]

12. I found it very difficult to use these skates, the blade were much longer than those I had become accustomed to [Right or wrong?]

13. She found on her arrival that Gabriel had departe only a few hours before. This was very disheartening new [Right or wrong?]

14. He was surprised to receive a letter from the dea saying that he had failed in history and German. Also tha his standing in all the rest of his studies was very poor [Right or wrong?]

15. A letter from the dean was brought to him at th breakfast table, this letter informed him that he would no be allowed to remain in college. [Right or wrong?]

16. The legacy came at a most fortunate time, it enable him to satisfy some particularly importunate creditors Also furnishing him with the money necessary for hi journey. [Right or wrong?]

17. They talked of all that had occurred during the pas six years. Particularly of the recent achievements of thei classmates. [Right or wrong?]

18. Farrar found that during his absence many change had occurred in the circumstances of his old friends. Almost all of whom had either married or died. [Right or wrong?]

19. He found that many changes had occurred during hi absence, almost all his old friends had married and now had homes of their own. The only exceptions being Wickham and McDonald. [Right or wrong?]

20. His request will surely not be granted. Such requests have been always refused in the past. [Right or wrong?]

Discrimination of end and interior punctuation

21. His request will surely not be granted, the rules of the college expressly exclude freshmen from the course he wishes to take. [Right or wrong?]

22. I agreed to present his request to the committee and to urge that it be granted. At the same time telling him frankly that there was little hope of the request's being granted. [Right or wrong?]

23. She found on her table a letter written on blue paper and addressed to her sister. The very letter which her sister had been expecting and which the servant had brought here by mistake. [Right or wrong?]

24. She found on her table a letter addressed to her sister, the servant had evidently brought it here by mistake. [Right or wrong?]

End Punctuation

Periods and capitals to be supplied

684. Study Rules 243, 245, 246, 257, 258. Write the following passage, putting a period at the end of every complete independent predication, and capitalizing the word following every period:

The topman who had hold of the upper corner of the topsail lost his balance, he was seen to totter, the crowd on the quay uttered a cry, he turned around the yard but caught hold of the footrope as he passed it and remained hanging by it, the sea was below him at a dizzy depth and the shock of his fall had given the footrope a violent swinging motion, the man swung at the end of the rope like a stone in a sling, to go to his assistance would be running a frightful risk, not one of the sailors dared to venture it, all at once a man could be seen climbing up the shrouds with the agility of a tiger cat, his red clothes showed that he was a convict in a second, he was upon the yard, he stood an instant looking around him, the crowd then saw him run along the yard, on reaching the end he fastened to it the rope he had brought let it hang down, and then began going down hand over hand, ten thousand eyes were fixed on the two swinging men, not a cry not a word could be heard, every person held his breath as if afraid of increasing in the slightest degree the wind that swung the two men, the convict managed to get close to the sailor, then clinging to the rope with one hand and working with the other, he fastened the rope around the sailor, at length he was seen to climb back to the yard and haul the sailor up, he supported him there for a moment to let him regain his strength and then took him in his arms and carried him along the yard to the cap and thence to the top where he left him with his comrades the convict began to descend immediately to rejoin his gang, all eyes followed him

at one moment the spectators felt afraid, for they fanc they saw him hesitate and totter. all at once the cro uttered a terrible cry the convict had fallen into the sea. fo men hastily got into a boat. the crowd encouraged them. felt anxious. again the convict did not come to the surface. disappeared without making a ripple, as if he had fallen in a tank of oil. they dragged for him but in vain. they search till nightfall but did not find his body.

Periods and capitals to be supplied

685. Study Rules 243, 245, 246, 257, 258. Write the fo lowing passage, putting a period at the end of every comple independent predication, and capitalizing the word followin every period.

Suddenly he felt his arm grasped a feeling of horror swe over him some living thing thin rough flat icy and slim from the depth of the cavity had twined itself round h arm its pressure was like that of a strap being drawn tigh in less than a second something had closed round his wri he drew back hastily but the power of motion had almo left him he was nailed to the spot with his left hand h grasped his knife which he had held between his teeth an setting his back to the rock made a desperate effort to with draw his arm he only succeeded in loosening the deadl clasp for a moment it immediately tightened again a secon object long and pointed issued from the cavity it appeare for a moment to lick Gilliatt's naked chest then it woun itself around him at the same time a terrible sense of pai compelled every muscle of his body to quiver a third whip like shape issued from the rock and lashed his body suddenly it fixed itself upon him as firmly as the others had done a fourth object this one with the swiftness of an arrow darte toward his stomach and clasped it tightly it was impossibl to tear away these four slimy bands they enlaced his body immovably adhering by a number of suckers a fifth lon slimy object glided from the cavity it passed by the other and wound itself around Gilliatt's chest these whiplik ribbons were pointed at the end they grew broader like the blade of a sword toward the hilt all five evidently sprang from one center they crept and glided over Gilliatt he felt their strange pressures he seemed to feel the suction of many miniature mouths these shifted their positions from time to time suddenly a huge slimy mass round and flattened issued from the cavity it was the center to which these five limbs were attached like spokes of a wheel on the opposite side of this center Gilliatt saw the commencement of three other limbs the ends of these three were concealed beneath the rock in the middle of the slimy mass were two eyes these

yes were fixed on Gilliatt he knew that he was in the tches of a devilfish.

686. Study Rules 263–275. Write the following expressions, placing a semicolon after the first predication in ach: 1. You have had a temptation I will do you the justice to uppose it was a strong one. 2. The money drawer was open suggested a means of escape. 3. John was not interested n this talk he stuck to his work and said nothing. 4. There as much to be done my bag was still to be packed and veral good-by calls must be made. 5. My correspondent appened to know Nicholson he and Nicholson were mem- ers of the Cliquot Club. 6. He was at home again pres- ntly he would see his father. 7. My master is not in sir e is staying at his house in Murrayfield. 8. He can't be ch no man gets rich at that trade. 9. My visit was unfor- nately timed the lady it appeared was undergoing a shampoo. 0. The lodge seemed deserted not a light could be seen in ny window. 11. He knocked there was no answer. 12. A ghted candle stood on the gravel walk it threw sparkles on he holly bushes. 13. He rose to go this was evidently no place or him. 14. I have not come to amuse you I have come to ell you some plain facts. 15. The gentleman has spoken of he easy way let us now consider the just way. 16. You re rich and comfortable your children have Sunday dresses our wife plays on her melodeon. 17. The man who dis- overed the telescope was paid with a dungeon the man who nvented the microscope died of starvation.

Semicolons to be inserted

687. Study Rules 263–275. Write the following expressions, placing a semicolon after the first predication in each: 18. You can do nothing without honesty get that and you get all. 19. They must trust their captain if they distrust him they are lost. 20. There is poison in his counsel the words he speaks are bitterness. 21. All good architecture is the expression of national life it is produced by a prevalent national taste. 22. What was play then is no longer amusing what was work then is easy now. 23. I have no time to do it to-night I will do it in the morning. 24. The Greeks worshiped the god of wisdom whatever contended against their religion was foolishness. 25. The Spartan ideal was subdued strength violence was considered blame- worthy. 26. My name is Bagley why do you keep calling me Catterwall? 27. I recognize you now you are the man who brought my trunk. 28. He plunged his hand into his pocket there was nothing there. 29. Open the door quick it's raining and I'm cold. 30. I can open the door I have a

Semicolons to be inserted

pass-key. 31. The gas was burning low perfect silence reigned. 32. Ask the boy he is old enough to answer for himself. 33. Take your hands off what right have you to seize me? 34. Look at that rose its stem is broken. 35. You have the wrong number please ring off.

Semicolon-groups to be completed

688. Study Rules 263–275. Write the following predications, placing a semicolon after each, and making each the first of a pair of predications that may properly be separated by a semicolon (*e.g.*, "His decision was entirely right; it was justified both by law and by precedent."). Do not introduce the second member of any group with *and*, *but*, *or*, or *for*. 1. His decision was entirely right; . . . 2. I have no objection to the plan; . . . 3. He takes no interest in poetry or music; . . . 4. The church should not concern itself with politics; . . . 5. "I learned him to skate" is bad English; . . . 6. Punctuation is a difficult art; . . . 7. A lawyer would hardly make such an argument; . . . 8. It is not the mere loss of a few dollars that angers me; . . . 9. A skull is not a pretty object to look at; . . . 10. She is an excellent stenographer; . . . 11. In those days few people could read or write; . . . 12. Everybody I passed looked at me with an expression of curiosity and amusement; . . . 13. Sometimes I have a queer longing for some fantastic sight; . . . 14. We Americans are far different from the Germans; . . . 15. Don't be afraid, boy; . . . 16. Bring me volume *Mol–Pal* of the encyclopedia; . . . 17. The two brothers also quarreled about politics; . . . 18. He was very ignorant of the usages of good society; . . . 19. These nails do not suit my purpose; . . . 20. He cannot vote in this district; . . .

So

689. Study Rules 279, 280. Write the following expressions, punctuating correctly: 1. He wanted it to be legible and permanent so he wrote in ink. 2. His eyes were still unaccustomed to the dim light so he did not notice the change. 3. He was in his shirt sleeves as usual so the servant asked the visitor to wait a minute. 4. That old signboard was one of the landmarks of the town so they hadn't the heart to remove it. 5. The boarders are beginning to fall upon the toothpicks so we shall soon have the room to ourselves. 6. The rusty hands of the clock marked half past four so the editor laid down his pencil. 7. This throe of oratory was particularly violent so the speaker took a swallow of water before proceeding. 8. The office force received an addition in a few weeks so the burden on each man

as lighter. 9. None of the streets in Tecumsehville are christened so locations are designated by reference to the inhabitants' several abodes. 10. The moon had not yet risen so we had to find our way in the dark.

690. Study Rules 279, 280. Write the following expressions, punctuating correctly: 1. A hot fire is necessary therefore a strong draft must be provided. 2. Sickness delayed their moving therefore we did not get the house so soon as we had expected. 3. The potato was painfully hot therefore her utterance was indistinct. 4. His manners were far from polite therefore he was disliked by his companions. 5. The crowd was thick and the hall was very close therefore I feared she would faint. 6. They were laughing and talking amicably therefore I was certain their quarrel had been made up. 7. I must be at my office in twenty minutes therefore we will postpone our consultation. 8. Parker refused to undertake my case unless I paid in advance therefore I went to Carew. 9. It is out of the question for her to see any visitors to-day therefore tell every one who calls that she is out. 10. I knew that Collingwood was in Boston therefore I was sure the step on the stair was not his. *Therefore*

691. Study Rules 279, 280. Write the following expressions, punctuating correctly: 1. I objected to his plan however since he was bent on it I yielded. 2. What you say is true still the thing is impossible. 3. Somehow I feel as if I had done wrong however I thought I was doing right at the time. 4. Cab lamps gleamed there by hundreds and the sidewalks were crowded nevertheless I felt very lonely. 5. The rain beat upon him and the wind howled still he marched forward. 6. Most of the time he is very dangerous however he has periods of apparent sanity. 7. She was to all appearance perfectly polite and agreeable still I knew that she was longing for a good opportunity to throttle me. 8. They were thrown together a great deal during the voyage nevertheless Tipworthy kept the secret. 9. Meredith talked very little of the affair however I knew it must be in his mind constantly. 10. His home was a paradise of beauty and luxury still Radford felt vaguely unhappy. 11. I admit he has done me many favors nevertheless this offense cancels all my obligations to him. 12. She isn't very neat or very thrifty however no one can deny her skill in making salads. 13. The transaction looks a little underhand at the first glance still those fellows don't deserve open dealing. 14. She doesn't enjoy symphony concerts very much how- *Still, however, nevertheless*

ever I think you can persuade her to go. 15. It is risky to stake our chances on so short a campaign nevertheless I am in favor of doing it. 16. To go to her assistance meant the failure of his most cherished plan still he did not hesitate. 17. He is polished and eloquent and poetic however I don't enjoy his sermons so well as old Mr. Fisbee's.

Then

692. Study Rules 279, 280. Write the following expressions, punctuating correctly: 1. He waited till the train came to a stop then he jumped off. 2. The obnoxious Beaurepaire at last walked off the stage then the hisses ceased. 3. He went below and lit the fuse then he returned to the deck. 4. The meerschaum finally becomes saturated with nicotine then there is less danger of breaking it. 5. The clock of St. Basil's tolled midnight then Tobenski softly descended. 6. The knight confessed and received the sacrament then he put on his armor. 7. He ran north on State Street for a few blocks then he turned into an alley. 8. He questioned us closely about what we had seen then he dismissed us. 9. The smoke at length cleared away then Lestang saw that the Englishman had struck his flag. 10. He saw her safely inside the door then he ran back to the scene of action.

Otherwise

693. Study Rules 279, 280. Write the following expressions, punctuating correctly: 1. You will please keep your hands up Mr. Huish otherwise I shall be compelled to shoot. 2. He must be very generous otherwise he would not have relinquished his claim. 3. I believed he was honest otherwise I should not have delivered the packet to him. 4. If he speaks good English he may have the position otherwise we don't want him. 5. He is very agreeable when he can have his own way otherwise he is odious. 6. Of course it is profitable otherwise why should Wilton take such interest in it? 7. He must have been present all the time otherwise how could he know these details? 8. Our representative should be well dressed otherwise he will be at a disadvantage with competing salesmen. 9. Come at once if I telegraph otherwise wait for me. 10. I shall be glad to subscribe if it is a Democratic paper otherwise I must decline.

Miscellaneous conjunctive adverbs

694. Study Rules 279, 280. Write the following expressions properly punctuated: 1. These screws control the reticule hence they are called reticule screws. 2. I objected to the plan however since he was bent on it I yielded. 3. A hot fire is necessary therefore a strong draft must be provided. 4. The wood had been injured by warping moreover

e metal parts were badly rusted. 5. Sickness delayed eir moving therefore we did not get the house so soon as e had planned. 6. What you say is true nevertheless the ing is impossible. 7. The meerschaum becomes finally turated with nicotine then there is less danger of its break-ag. 8. All the cracks were filled with tow thus the craft as made seaworthy.

Miscellaneous conjunctive adverbs

695. Study Rules 279, 280. Write the following expressions, punctuating correctly: 1. She never laughed nor even smiled moreover her conversation was always of a melancholy tone. 2. She has conversed with Mirabeau hence she must be very old. 3. She wished my father to be informed accordingly I wrote to him that evening. 4. He continually reproached her and she was always offended at his reproaches thus their friendship rapidly grew cold. 5. I saw no reason for declining his invitation besides I enjoyed his society and wished to be with him longer. 6. He is a graduate of Oxford moreover he has traveled extensively on the continent. 7. She now discovered that she had dropped the letter somewhere in the street hence she felt very anxious lest her destination should be found out. 8. Neither would yield a step accordingly there was nothing to do but draw their swords. 9. He practiced assiduously and constantly frequented Vougeot's studio thus he became fairly proficient. 10. I know because I saw him go out besides his room is empty as you see. 11. Chapman wasn't in the mood for a picnic moreover he disapproved of picnics on Sunday. 12. The chevalier has disavowed his claim hence the last difficulty is removed. 13. Alexander was sure he could persuade the old lady accordingly he called on her next day. 14. Adrienne was blonde, fat, and jolly thus she seemed well fitted for her part. 15. The old sergeant had a stock of interesting stories to tell me besides he was a good chess-player. 16. He'll get to the crossroads before I do still he can't do any harm there. 17. I have received no word from him for two weeks however I have no anxiety. 18. He is brave and strong and true nevertheless he cannot win against such a force as he has to contend with.

In fact

696. Study Rules 283–285. Write the following expressions, punctuating correctly: 1. They were not decadent in fact they were eminently robust. 2. It is a most erratic production in fact I believe the author is a little insane. 3. A knife that cuts clumsily will not do in fact it would be worse than none at all. 4. It becomes evident that he was misjudged in fact he was the victim of unpardonable abuse.

5. He is never satisfied with his good fortune in fact he is perpetually throwing his gold into the gutter. 6. There is danger that he will not keep the appointment in fact I believe he is sure to break it. 7. She pleases me exceedingly by her beauty and her accomplishments in fact I intend to marry her. 8. I was not afraid to encounter him in fact I was rather eager to meet him. 9. The ugliness of some regions is not to be entirely deplored in fact it may be a source of pleasure. 10. It is a very poor likeness in fact it is a caricature rather than a likeness. 11. The place is full of marvelous things in fact there's nothing there that is not marvelous. 12. To read such books would not be a piece of indulgence in fact it would be a highly meritorious enterprise. 13. The sinfulness of being foolish is much overrated in fact I think it is a man's duty to be a fool occasionally. 14. I like red hair and hooked noses in fact I like downright ugliness in the human face. 15. He has destroyed his usefulness in fact he has become an actual nuisance.

Virtual predications

697. Study Rules 244, 257. Write the italicized expressions following, punctuating and capitalizing correctly:

1. [" I'm coming with you."] " *Good get your hat.*"
2. [" Where is it ? "] " *In the library shall I go and get it?*"
3. [" I don't like to trouble you."] " *No trouble at all I am glad to be of service.*"
4. " *Hello fellows where are you going?*" " *To the circus come along.*"
5. [" But he is out of work."] " *So much the better he'll be more easily induced to join us.*"
6. [" What did you use ? "] " *Ink did you ever try it ?*"
7. [" I am going to get a trap."] " *What for the rats won't touch it.*"
8. [" She's to be married."] " *When do tell me I haven't heard of it.*"
9. [" Is your life insured ? "] " *Certainly my house too.*"
10. [" Who's the handsome lady near the door ? "] " *Our cook haven't you been introduced ?*"
11. [" Has he big side whiskers like tusks? "] " *No why should he ?*"
12. [" Have you a brother named Heliogabalus ? "] " *Not that I know why ?*"
13. [" I have brought you a yellow bass."] " *Glorious where is it ?*"
14. [" He's a genius."] " *Really at what ?*"

15. ["Do you like ortolans?"] "*Very much we have them every morning for breakfast.*"

698. Study Rules 257, 293. **The following expressions are incorrectly punctuated; each is an example of the comma fault.** Rewrite the expressions, correcting the comma fault in each (see Rule 298). 1. I employed a tutor, but it was useless, I could not master the subject. 2. Next day he saw the old woman sitting in the same place, he approached and asked who she was. 3. On Tuesday I was fortunately hurt, I say "fortunately" because but for that hurt, I should have been killed. 4. The students are inattentive, and the professor has to repeat his remarks, all this delays the progress of the lesson. 5. What is there to show for the money invested, practically nothing. 6. When the two men were found to be impostors, they were tortured, one was branded and the other was scalped. 7. If the stick were bent, it would perhaps crack, anyway it would not stay in place. 8. You must devise your own system of notation, the simpler the system the better. 9. When they opened their door, there was a loud crash, it sounded like tin cans falling. 10. Mrs. Page could stand the strain no longer, she opened the door and looked in. 11. Is he going to weaken as soon as he leaves college, no he is not, he will always retain his strength and energy. 12. A spirit of hope and cheer is necessary, without it the fight will be lost. 13. Consider the Russo-Japanese war for instance, the Japanese were intelligent, they knew what they were fighting for. 14. The screws must be accurately adjusted, if they are not, the readings will be incorrect. 15. When I become an engineer, I shall accomplish great things, that is what I expect now, at any rate. 16. Iago does not plot against Roderigo from mere love of money, it is mainly pure malignity that actuates him. 17. Iago is Shakespeare's greatest villain, he does evil for evil's sake. 18. His fleet numbered only twenty ships, of these only a few were fit for service. Comma fault

699. Study Rules 257, 293. **The following expressions are incorrectly punctuated; each is an example of the comma fault.** Rewrite the expressions, correcting the comma fault in each (see Rule 298). 1. I have worked in two departments, one summer I worked on the grinding floor and another summer in the shipping room. 2. There are two routes to Spain, they are the Atlantic route and the dream route. 3. Formerly he had been a rough, loud-swearing sailor, now his manners were mild, and he was devoted to charity. 4. Then I rushed to get Comma fault

Comma fault

my breakfast, it was good, but I could not linger at it. 5. When prom. time approaches, we seek money and a *girl*, without the one the other is useless. 6. We prepare the house for the guests, they are to stay only three short days, but the house must be immaculate. 7. For several days I worked hard and went to bed dog-tired, then came the house party and my disgust vanished, I enjoyed it thoroughly and regretted it must end. 8. Look at the second argument, does the gentleman expect us to take it seriously? 9. If we read every novel published, what would happen, we should go blind or insane. 10. You are entirely mistaken in the matter, listen, piety is merely his stalking-horse. 11. Many an autobiographer begins by saying he was born of poor but honest parents, well, my parents were honest but not poor. 12. Going to church did me no harm, I met a good sort of people and enjoyed myself with the younger set. 13. I should wish to have abundance of light, there should be chandeliers and sidelights in every conceivable place. 14. The school was in the same condition then as it is now, there were too many students to be well provided for. 15. The depth of the water varies, at one place it is four feet and at another twenty. 16. German is a hard study, I manage to pass in it, but that's all. 17. The fool drops out of the play after the storm scene, by some it is conjectured that he died of a broken heart.

Interior Punctuation

Mistaken junction

700. Study Rule 299. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. I became greatly interested in good plays and acting. Ever since I have been a *regular* attendant at the theater. 2. However capable as he was he failed of his purpose. 3. Rosencrantz had not been taken for an ignorant day laborer had accidentally disclosed *the* trap just in time. 4. Soon after I was picked up by a passing ship. 5. The police were powerless to cope with the mob and the fire department was not allowed to extinguish the fire. 6. Thousands of people thronged down town to see the buildings and the streets were completely blocked. 7. For the testing of the brass chemists take a sample while the metal is being cast. 8. In preparing for the work of casting the workmen wrap themselves in heavy coverings. 9. I believe that hazing is a good thing for many freshmen need a lesson in humility. 10. If there is no one else to take care of the children will not be a burden. 11. There is nothing more ruinous to the accuracy of observation than the vaulting imagination that always believes

he marvelous and the boundless credulity that believes the incredible. 12. It was early when we started for the little hut in the woods was a long way off. 13. So far as I can judge Mr. Bryan's intended attack on solid New England is inspired by an utterly vain hope. 14. If you are going to move a want ad will help you dispose of goods you want to get rid of. 15. The first time a novice attempts to steer the boat should be insured. 16. When he entered the door a heavy iron-studded one clanked shut. 17. Shortly after the doctor left Mr. Hawkins lying quietly on the bed began to snore.

Intervening words

701. Study Rules 300–302. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. He should as I said before read Pope's *Atticus*. 2. He is to say the least not trustworthy. 3. We might I suppose be angry at the libel; the satire on the other hand would please us. 4. The Henleyite's idea is as I understand it to express violent contempt. 5. We can unless I am much mistaken benefit him greatly. 6. She would not except in an emergency willingly join with such people. 7. Quadrille she has often told me was her first love. 8. Whist is not as quadrille is a feast of snatches. 9. But the eye my dear sir is agreeably refreshed by the variety. 10. I am not to tell the truth very fond of the game. 11. These terms she thought savored of affectation. 12. Games of skill if played for a stake are a pure system of overreaching. 13. A slate she used to say would be the proper arena for such amusements. 14. What death in your judgment is most eligible? 15. But this statement on consideration I doubt. 16. If a man dies for instance while intoxicated, his death is regarded I have often observed with peculiar horror. 17. Nor will he on the other hand be blamed for neglecting a thing which was so far as he could see of no consequence. 18. The coach was by some rare accident not yet ready. 19. He did not as a matter of fact understand a word of Latin. 20. He has gone I believe to Manchester. 21. The Cyclops it is very probable was much put out by Æneas.

Interpolated *however*

702. Study Rules 300–302, 400, 401. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. Carroll was to say the least frivolous. His frivolity however was harmless. 2. The martyr's act was I grant fanatical; it is however worthy of admiration. 3. The Book of Proverbs is properly speaking a medley. There are however evidences that it was compiled by one man. 4. We call it to be sure a penny dreadful; it has however several merits. 5. If the vow absurd

as it is were only performed, one could respect him. He is too weak however to keep any promise at all. 6. He vowed for example to chain two mountains together. Before he could finish the task however he died. 7. He is at liberty to sell if he pleases all his property; he has no right however to sell any of mine. 8. They all seemed a thought ashamed of the exhibition. To me however it appeared very creditable. 9. Jewish severity you know was purely ethical; the Greeks however carried their police regulations into elfland. 10. Greek criteria were as every one knows dominant for many centuries. They did not succeed however in conquering the world of art permanently.

Comma before *and*

703. Study Rules 317, 318. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. His eyes flashed as he drew his sword and his breath came short and quick. 2. A lamp-post should be wrought in twisted iron and a pillar box should be carved with figures. 3. Horton scowled at the captain and the mate muttered angrily. 4. The altitude is high and consequently the air is cool. 5. The snow was about four inches deep on the fields and in some places it had drifted to the depth of three feet. 6. The well was concealed by the snow and Porter stepped on one of the rotten boards that lay across its mouth. 7. They started toward home but nightfall overtook them and they lost their way. 8. Miss Lane was Fred's teacher and his dearest wish was to give her a handsome valentine. 9. Fortunately the water was not hot enough to scald him and he was more frightened than hurt. 10. He bought the land with his own money and his bank account was not extremely large, either. 11. We asked what they wanted the basket for but they refused to explain. 12. He knocked over the screen and the lamp burning on the table showed him the vanishing coat tails of his guest. 13. There were few who made the team and the whole squad numbered only seventeen. 14. The abuses finally became intolerable to the faculty and the students themselves favored a reform. 15. Here the ground was dry and dog violets grew in abundance.

Comma before *for*

704. Study Rules 317–319. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. Mr. Blount was evidently anxious for his eyes kept wandering toward the door. 2. You need not forbid her to do it for her father will not permit it anyway. 3. It is a very good story for the author is unusually clever and witty. 4. I do not care at all for the statue is only a replica. 5. I am glad of this opportunity to cast my vote for Nolan is certainly the man for the place.

5. The other ships followed the *Formidable* for they dared not deviate from her course. 7. He remained silent for fear had paralyzed his tongue. 8. The captain was mistaken for a common sailor had discharged the shot. 9. I cannot give very much for my father allows me very little pocket money. 10. He exulted for his success was certain to make him famous. 11. They waited in vain for the bold diver never reappeared. 12. The last trip was especially dangerous for the sailors were exposed to the guns of the mutineers. 13. In the harvest season thousands of men flock to the West for the wages are tempting. 14. He may spend the money as he pleases for his pleasures concern no one but himself. 15. We should surely not make such a contribution for his family would regard it as a humiliation. 16. They reached the fortress none too soon for the enemy were already at the harbor mouth.

Comma before *for*

705. Study Rules 317–319. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. Now let them rake the bay with shot; we care not for our ships are beyond the range of their guns. 2. I was much interested in swimming for a prize was offered to the winner of a swimming match. 3. Make your preparations to-night for Heaven only knows whether there will be time in the morning. 4. I learned to dance for my father and mother thought it good exercise. 5. I told the committee I was well qualified for shoveling sand is really an intricate and puzzling occupation compared to the work they wanted done. 6. I will certainly not do the work for nothing is so distasteful to me as a job of that kind. 7. I thought he spoke English remarkably well for a Swede usually makes many more mistakes than he made. 8. I don't want that machine for mine is much better. 9. Marcy was afraid to jump for once he had been injured in attempting a similar feat. 10. This is necessary for the motor and the light do not vary in proportion. 11. The darkness was favorable for my plan required the utmost secrecy. 12. I needed some oil for the wheels of my wagon had begun to squeak. 13. Bring a few lanterns for the lawn is to be illuminated. 14. The doctor prescribed no medicine for the patient seemed nearly recovered. 15. Don't wear shabby clothes for men will not respect you if you do.

Miscellaneous coordinating conjunctions

706. Study Rules 317–318. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. Gondremark prepared an order for the arrest of the prince and the princess signed it. 2. He is benefited by the new rules but yet he is discontented. 3. This angered Damfreville but still he controlled his

temper. 4. It was rumored that he had for this purpose sacrificed the life of a child and a woman of his household vouched for the report. 5. One day he saw Rappaccini walking among the shrubs and the flowers seemed to him to shrink as the doctor passed. 6. I patted the puppy's head and its tail wagged joyfully. 7. He brought some flowers to Miss Miriam and her sister was jealous. 8. There was a purple mark on his hand and his arm tingled with a strange pain. 9. They came to know each other better and he often went into the garden to walk with her for an hour with her he prized more highly than a day at his books. 10. A faintness seemed to seize Beatrice and Giovanni caught her to save her from falling. 11. One day a French ship was sighted and he ordered his men to give chase. 12. The work has been done faithfully and well he deserves his compensation. 13. Such are the qualities of the American "hobo" and the gentle reader will please bear them in mind. 14. He was to steer the *Formidable* and the other ships were to follow her. 15. Our hero promptly knocked down the junior and six sophomores then seated themselves on our hero. 16. He stooped to pluck one of the flowers but she seized his arm and forbade him.

Relative clauses

707. Study Rules 251, 252, 334–336, 342. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly. Underline the relative clause in each sentence, and at the end of each sentence state whether the clause underlined is restrictive or non-restrictive. 1. The great philosopher Plato who flourished long before the Christian era anticipated some of the teachings of Christ. 2. He that ruleth his temper is greater than he that taketh a city. 3. I am the Lord thy God that brought thee out of the land of Egypt. 4. Can you name the place where he is hiding and the persons who aided in his escape? 5. I detest a man who is snobbish. 6. A woman who wears a rat is a deceiver. 7. Suggest some book that would be suitable for a birthday present. 8. Those who cannot swim should keep away from the water. 9. A painting that one does not get tired of is extremely rare. 10. One of the most beautiful chapters is the one in which the still, small voice is spoken of. 11. The friends who tell us the truth are not always those we enjoy most. 12. A photographer who delivers his pictures when they are promised is sure to get rich. 13. My early education was given me by my parents who taught me my A B C's and my numbers. 14. The spokes should be made of ash which for this purpose is better than oak. 15. He married Cynthia Neckington who though she was beautiful had a temper that made

his life miserable. 16. I resign in favor of Mr. Anselm Gregory for whom I ask your hearty support. 17. The battle was won by Admiral Dewey about whom little had up to that time been generally known.

708. Study Rules 251, 252, 334–336, 342. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly. Underline the relative clause in each sentence, and at the end of each sentence state whether the clause underlined is restrictive or non-restrictive. 1. We have left undone those things which we ought to have done, and we have done those things which we ought not to have done. 2. My grandfather Sievers who was born in Pomerania always spoke broken English. 3. The wood out of which paper is made is inferior to that out of which sideboards are made. 4. Henning was on intimate terms with President Cleveland who greatly admired his ability and integrity. 5. The room was adorned with goldenrod of which many varieties grew in the neighborhood. 6. Dickens's *David Copperfield* which is my favorite novel is somewhat autobiographical. 7. A cat that crowed would be no more wonderful than a rooster that meowed. 8. The Sistine Madonna which Raphael painted centuries ago is still as fresh and beautiful as ever. 9. The picture by which Raphael is best known is the Sistine Madonna. 10. He kept the scarab in his lower right-hand waistcoat pocket on which he frequently laid his hand. 11. I do not want books that instruct; I want books that amuse. 12. George Eliot's novels which are, I admit, very instructive bore me; I like R. L. Stevenson who provides plenty of healthy homicide. 13. Blackmar wore his very best suit which was a green and brown plaid. 14. Next she played *Sally in Our Alley* of which I am particularly fond. 15. He decided to go to Harvard University where he thought the society would be congenial to him. 16. I waited for him until midnight when I gave up hope and went to bed. 17. Any person who carries concealed weapons is liable to arrest. 18. The time when kings' caprices were law is long gone by. 19. [Do you see this parchment?] The ink with which it was written was mingled with tears. 20. This is Springfield, the place where the arsenal is maintained. Relative clauses

709. Study Rules 335, 337, 338, 342. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly. In each one, underline the adjective element to which Rule 335 applies, and at the end of the sentence state whether that element is restrictive or non-restrictive. 1. It is strange that a play so tragic as Restrictive and non-restrictive phrases

Restrictive and non-restrictive phrases

Lear should give you pleasure. 2. Shakespeare's *Lear* tragic and pathetic seemed to fit into my mood. 3. A m full of enthusiasm is the kind of president we want — no man full of misgivings. 4. Napoleon full of confide advanced into Russia. 5. When the police and the stude met, the students having the advantage of numbers were v torious. 6. Students having second-hand books to disp of are invited to call at Hamstring and Sissley's bookstor 7. The faculty not being in sympathy with lawlessn suspended the rioters. 8. At Valley Forge the Ame can army hard-pressed for supplies became disheartene 9. A man hard-pressed for money usually becomes disco aged. 10. The uncouth Jim McTaggart ill-dressed a awkward was not welcome in the Du Blois home. 11. M ill-dressed and awkward are not found in the duches salon. 12. The steamboat *Sylph* propelled by her clum stern wheel was not expected to win the race. 13. steamboat propelled by a stern wheel is an unusual sig nowadays. 14. The ink used by printers is different fr that used for manuscript. 15. Homer's *Iliad* written pr ably over two thousand years ago enjoys undiminish popularity still. 16. William J. Bryan already twice d feated is again a candidate. 17. The numerous boo already written by Mr. Riddleston are nothing to those sti to be written. 18. The door flew open, and Ralph Rack-straw covered with mud entered the church. 19. A man covered with mud is an unusual figure in church. 20. I have never yet written a theme free from errors.

Such as

710. Study Rules 339–341. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. Several prominent men were mentioned such as McKinley, Cleveland, and Conkling. 2. The usual studies are pursued there such as Latin, algebra, and history. 3. Violent exercises such as baseball, tennis, and boat racing are not encouraged. 4. A few little conveniences such as bootjacks, corkscrews, and garden hoses were provided. 5. The things they eat are dainty enough such as walrus chops, whale fat, and jerked bear. 6. Ordinary words such as *together*, *separate*, and *all right* must not be misspelled. 7. The more expensive instruments such as kettledrums, bass viols, and trombones are still to be purchased. 8. The story is full of queer conceits such as puns, quibbles, and other plays on words. 9. Many distracting noises such as gunshots, whistles, and the wailing of tomcats kept us long awake. 10. He was greeted with numerous expressions of contempt such as groans, hisses, and cries of "pish!" "tush!" "pooh!" "bah!"

711. Study Rules 250, 348, 349. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. When a shotgun is brought in from the field it is usually dirty. 2. If the gun is dry it need not be cleaned at once. 3. Since rags will stick in the barrel now and then it may be well to explain before how to remove them. 4. If the ramrod is stuck in the barrel the protruding end may be fastened in a vice. 5. When the barrel has been polished until it shines like a mirror you may consider the job finished. 6. If the foregoing directions are followed the gun will give satisfaction. 7. When I used to carry my dinner pail to the little school at Nichol's Corner I felt very self-important. 8. Even after I started to school it was long before I enjoyed playing with the other children. 9. Since I had always before that time been so much alone it was not easy for me to make friends. 10. Although at present I have many friends I care for Jim more than for any one else. 11. Finally when a beautiful warm day arrived the news spread among the boys that Roy Hoover had been swimming. 12. When the work is passed over so quickly we cannot grasp it very well. 13. After we are up and are outdoors taking a brisk walk we wonder why we hated so much to get up. 14. When all is ready for the work of casting the men wrap themselves in carpets.

Adverbial clause preceding principal

712. Study Rules 250, 348, 349. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. After the metal has become molten a slag forms at the bottom. 2. When the entire charge is melted iron ore is added. 3. As the name Highland Home suggests it is a large country house. 4. When you reach the top of the hill you can see the creek. 5. Shortly after the stranger left Billy Bones died. 6. While Jim was wandering over the island he came upon a man dressed in skins. 7. As soon as they left the ship the men on board began to prepare the cannon. 8. When the mutineers approached the squire and the captain fired. 9. Immediately after they entered the house was attacked by the mob. 10. When I awoke my companions were already half dressed. 11. One day while they were hunting a bear crossed the trail a short distance ahead of them. 12. Although they had some difficulty in climbing the stairs seemed to be at least perfectly secure. 13. A few days after they sailed the boat sprang a leak. 14. Although I know I shall never reach the place I keep on dreaming that I shall go there sometime. 15. As I work ahead and see more clearly what is possible I build new castles on my Spanish estate. 16. If the farmer knew what the birds live on he would regard them as friends.

Adverbial clause preceding principal

17. When the time comes to study everything but the lesson is forgotten.

Appositives

713. Study Rules 372, 373. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. Thomas De Quincey author of *Joan of Arc* was an opium-eater. 2. A fine fellow a member of the yacht club was drowned. 3. Alexander the Greek conqueror was well educated. 4. The Lady of Shalott a mythical person is described by Tennyson. 5. The southern side is washed by the Propontis a beautiful lake. 6. It received the appellation of Bosphorus a name celebrated in the fables of antiquity. 7. My ancestors the Montresors were a great family. 8. There he saw Bartram a rough-looking man sitting by the furnace. 9. A shaggy dog a grave and venerable quadruped now approached. 10. There sat the stage agent a wilted and smoke-dried man. 11. There also was the village doctor a man of fifty years. 12. Isaacs the keeper of the shop was absent. 13. The dinner a very scanty meal was soon eaten. 14. The features of Dante the Italian poet were very somber. 15. This oration a classic once is now forgotten.

Namely

714. Study Rules 386, 387. Write the following, punctuating correctly: 1. I demand only one thing namely justice. 2. Only two dances are used namely the waltz and the highland fling. 3. Two words I fear I habitually misspell namely *athlete* and *disappoint*. 4. You will find there a person whom I wish you to know namely Madeline Mooney. 5. Remember particularly the books I mentioned first namely *Middlemarch*, *Kenilworth*, and *Hard Cash*. 6. It is attractive but for a serious drawback namely the interminable piano strumming above. 7. She bade me admire what she called her chief treasures namely an intaglio of Sophocles, a Della Robbia replica, and a bronze bulldog. 8. Surety bonds are required of three officers *viz.* the president, the treasurer, and the janitor. 9. He has disregarded an important requirement *viz.* the requirement made in article VI. 10. They should appear at those times when they have promised to appear *viz.* whenever the choir master shall request it. 11. On that corner you will find three interesting buildings *viz.* the subtreasury, the cathedral, and a saloon. 12. We shall study the three principal varieties *viz.* tropes, miracles, and moralities. 13. He was found waiting at his post namely the cottage which he had been ordered to guard. 14. One characteristic of his I must commend namely the fact that he steadfastly discountenances stained glass.

715. Study Rules 429–433. Write the following sentences, punctuating correctly: 1. My dear fellow what made you so careless? 2. That is a serious change Mr. Spoker. 3. Your Majesty he has done his duty. 4. At any rate Mr. Harris I have received an oral promise. 5. Be quiet child I am busy. 6. To-morrow my dear I shall receive a check. 7. For years Mr. Speaker this law has been a dead letter. 8. The regulation of railways ladies and gentlemen must be undertaken by Congress. 9. Gentlemen may I be of any service? 10. Will you take this seat madam? 11. Stand up Mr. Waters. 12. You may sit down Mr. Waters. 13. I'm glad to see you old man. 14. Jim have you a match? 15. Bridget where's my pipe? 16. Mr. Cox here is your hat. 17. Members of the Mallet Club I salute you. Vocatives

716. Study Rules 444–447. Write a composition about a journey, using the following expressions: Geographical expressions and dates

Syracuse, New York	January, 1840
May 19, 1910	Cincinnati, Ohio
Wednesday, May 21	June 2–13
Gallipolis, Ohio	Erie, Pennsylvania
Covington, Kentucky	Albany, New York
August 17, 1836	Delaware County, Ohio
Brantford, Ontario	

717. Study Rules 452–462. **The following sentences are incorrectly punctuated; each contains one or more superfluous commas.** Rewrite the sentences, using no interior punctuation, except two commas in No. 1 (see Rule 328). 1. The qualifications, which are most important, are, good health, agility and keen sight. [336, 462.] 2. Many players have, what is often called, a baseball brain. [456, 457.] 3. A horse is the most useful, of all animals, to man. 4. This part of the store is separated, from the rest of the store, by a green cloth. [369.] 5. I went away, with a good picture, of a Chinese laundry, in my mind. 6. A horse is an animal, that is looked upon, as more than a beast of burden. [336, 358.] 7. A farm horse's work begins, in earnest, when the frost has thawed. [369, 358.] From that time, on, he is busy, nearly all day long. [344, 347, 358.] 8. There are many other places, besides the farm, where horses are used. 9. He is, sometimes, neglected. [344.] The drive was a pleasure, to those, who enjoyed scenery. [358, 336.] 10. I, by no means, want to condemn hazing. [369.] 11. The proper way to write a theme, on the care of a horse, would be to select the kind Superfluous commas

of horse, you wish to write about. [335 *b*, 336.] 12. He had a temper under the influence of which, he lost his self-control. [453.] 13. One day, a poor, old, ragged, tramp walked into the yard of a prosperous farm, in Dane County, and knocked, timidly, on the door. [347, 305, 335, 320, 344.] 14. A successful business man must have, what is called, tact. [456, 457.] 15. My father offered me, what I thought was a good position. [456.] 16. He promised to double all the money I should save, in the course of the year. [358.] 17. At the end of my course I decided, that I did not need any more education. [454.] 18. Hans was giving a student, what appeared to be, his first lesson. [456, 457.]

Superfluous commas

718. Study Rules 452–462. **The following sentences are incorrectly punctuated; each contains one or more superfluous commas.** Rewrite the sentences, using no interior punctuation, except a comma after "a brilliant mind" in No. 1 (see Rule 349), and three commas in No. 2 (see Rules 336, 328): 1. Samuel Johnson stood forth, among the men of his time, as a giant, with clay feet. Although he was endowed by nature, with a brilliant mind, yet, in the eyes of many people, the disagreeable elements in his character, outweighed his merits. One must remember that, for nearly every fault of his, there was some adequate reason. His bad table manners were due to the fact, that, for a great many years, he had been near starvation. 2. In the center, is a stove around which, a number of farmers, laborers, and boys, were gathered. [347, 453.] 3. I forgot to take into consideration, that I should have to buy clothes. [454.] 4. Perhaps, he has lost it. 5. I am glad, you did not forget. [454 *b*, 455.] 6. She felt, that she had been slighted. [454.] 7. Farm implements, and coils of thick rope, were piled in one corner. [320, 322.] 8. No latest fashions, or shimmering silks, were displayed, in that window. [322, 358.] 9. A good batter, often, saves the game for his team. [344.] 10. It seemed almost impossible, that he could do the work. [382 *b*.] 11. I never owned a boat, of any kind. [335 *a*.] 12. She goads him on, and, with withering sarcasm, reproaches him for his cowardice. [320, 347.] 13. But, in the end, a broken-down mind is all that remains of her once proud spirit. [347, 355.] 14. The meeting of his heavy eye-brows, indicates a temper. 15. Then Casey wielded the bat, with masterly strength. [358.]

Period fault

719. Study Rules 463–467. **The following expressions are incorrectly punctuated; each is an example of the period fault.** Rewrite the expressions, correcting the period fault

In each: 1. Further north is a big lake, where I keep my boats. My bilge-board sloop, my racing power boat, and my big launch. 2. The story of King Lear is derived from an old Celtic legend. Lear being represented as the tenth descendant of Brutus, the first king of Britain. 3. As you go up the drive, you see at the right a little summerhouse which is one mass of vines. While on the other side is a large stable. 4. I suspected two fellows in particular. Buck Joslin, whom I had seen hiding near the shed, and Bill Arnold, the pink-eyed delivery boy. 5. We were all excitement, thinking of the pleasant week that was before us. The sport of a military train, the quick construction of the camp, the morning marches, and the evening parade. 6. I came to the conclusion that a musical life was not a fit life for a man who had not the most extraordinary genius. That it was poorly recompensed and might not bring me the bare necessaries of life. 7. I never tired of hearing my father tell how Bob came at night and barked until the door was opened. Then how he led the men to the place where his injured master lay. 8. The house stands between a large creek, flowing from east to west at this point, and the road, which here turns east again. So that in going from Chadwick one must cross the creek before reaching the house. 9. The pots are usually made of plumbago and German clay. Each pot being used only two or three times. 10. We argued the matter for some time during the following month. He trying to persuade me to go to college, and I insisting that a commercial career was better. 11. They went home with the recovered treasure, which they divided equally among themselves. Each man swearing to keep the expedition secret. 12. It must have been a great temptation to Iago to work upon so sensitive a person as Othello. One who would be so tender on the very points which Iago attacked. His love for Desdemona and his high sense of honor. 13. Coleridge considered Iago as a man who delights in malice for its own sake. A kind of Mephistopheles, and so, I believe, does Professor Bradley. 14. People have different methods of building these "Spanish castles." Some by marrying wealth, for example, and some by seeking the gold fields. 15. There were two books on the table. One a small, gilded volume, and the other a commercial ledger. 16. Blount wore an article of adornment that marked him unmistakably as an American. A baggage check suspended from his fob. Period fault

720. Study Rules 463–467. **The following expressions are incorrectly punctuated; each is an example of the period** Period fault

Period fault

fault. Rewrite the expressions, correcting the period fault in each: 1. Mr. Beverly shuffled, using the table method. That is, by dividing the deck into two packs and passing his thumbs along a corner of each pack. 2. It was in the winter that the reclamation of the land began. That time of the year being the dry season. 3. At the very outset he announced those policies which he sought to promote through his whole career. The annihilation of the Huguenots, the subjugation of the nobles, and the increase of the international influence of France. 4. A boy that is brought up without the companionship of any brothers or sisters is likely to turn out a mollycoddle. Especially so if he lives with a grandmother and a grandfather who believe he is the most wonderful boy in the world. 5. Some of my courses are easy for me, on account of a natural mechanical ability. For instance drawing and shop work. 6. My sisters have always been a voluntarily organized detective bureau. Said bureau existing for the purpose of keeping watch on me. 7. She said that if he was disrespectful to any woman, he wronged *all* women. That she was determined to help her sex by being true to it. 8. Hardly had the doctor disappeared when Jim also slipped away. The latter with the intention of cutting the ship from her anchor. 9. After a short vogue of the narrow trousers, the peg-top style again became popular. This time to remain in fashion for an indefinitely long time, it seems. 10. He saw two figures far out on the ice. A boy and a girl skimming gracefully along, their skates flashing in the sun. 11. The French had been routed. Not annihilated, but forced to take flight. 12. My parents were extremely afraid of the river. That is to have me near it. 13. There ought to be two courses in chemistry. One for those who have studied the subject before, and one for beginners. 14. I think that men and women should not be in the same classes. Not because of any mental inequality, but for other reasons. 15. Hector is pictured as a man of sobriety and determination. While Paris is the reverse. 16. The author points his moral in a very clear way. In a way that any child could understand and yet at the same time the story is charming to a mature reader.

General exercise in interior punctuation

721. Study Rules 299–435. Write the following sentences, punctuating them correctly. After each mark of punctuation, write within brackets the number of the rule in accordance with which the mark is used. 1. On the south side for about fifty feet in it is divided into two stories. 2. It will never rank high as an intercollegiate game for the

students find greater enjoyment in a contest between teams. 3. First of all let me say do not come here unless you have plenty of money for expenses are high. 4. I advise you however to investigate for yourself. 5. Ruling pens like any other sharp instrument become dull with use. 6. When the instruments are laid away especially if they are not to be used for some time the compasses should be left open for otherwise they will lose their spring. 7. The better the health of the men is the more they can accomplish. 8. The benefit does not lie only in the development of individual students but it lies also in the good done to the college as a whole. 9. The report will spread to remote villages and people in the backwoods will be induced to seek the college. 10. The yard is bordered on the west side by a row of pine trees and other trees and shrubs are planted about the lawn. 11. Along the east side are a number of plum trees and several flower beds dot the lawn near by. 12. This statement was made to Mr. A. E. Storey chairman of the committee. 13. If our laws are not what they should be it is time they were amended. 14. While we were eating a child the son of one of the natives approached. 15. Some were armed with bolos but an order was given that no one should fire. 16. After the ship is in the upper gate of the lock is closed. 17. Bishop of Beauvais thy victim died in fire.

General exercise in interior punctuation

722. Study Rules 299–450. Write the following sentences, punctuating them correctly. After each mark of punctuation, write within brackets the number of the rule in accordance with which the mark is used: 1. I slept very late slept in fact until noon. 2. The back of the table its square corners its size its heaviness these are features I did not perceive. 3. This phenomenon has received a recognized name among alienists namely *aphasia*. 4. The great difference in fact between the two kinds of thinking is this that empirical thinking is reproductive but reasoning is productive. 5. It shone by its own light a strange thing to see. 6. We think that the premises of both controversialists were unsound that on these premises Addison reasoned well and Steele ill and that consequently Addison brought out a false conclusion while Steele blundered upon the truth. 7. The pamphlet contains seventy-two pages and much information concerning the work of the past year is furnished within this space much more than was given to the public in the smaller publications of 1901 1902 and 1903. 8. The state's attorney who has been indefatigable in the effort to obtain evidence against Magill the detective on the case and the special grand jurymen all are puzzled. 9. Tennyson's *The Lady of*

General exercise in interior punctuation

Shalott is a narrative poem relating how a mysterious lady living on an island in a river within view of the castle of Camelot was enjoined under penalty of a mortal curse to weave incessantly at a loom and never to look toward Camelot how she continued for a while to observe the mystic decree never even looking from the window but observing the scenes near her island by the reflection of them in a mirror how weary with the task and the restraint she one day saw in her mirror the image of a splendid knight riding by the river hastened forgetting the prohibition to the window gazed on the knight and in so doing saw the castle of Camelot and how this act of disobedience bringing the curse upon her she soon sickened and died. 10. Tennyson's poem *Lady Clara Vere de Vere* is the speech of a manly young country fellow to a beautiful but heartless young lady of high birth who has attempted to amuse herself by breaking his heart a speech expressing disdain for charms beneath which there is no goodness of heart and contempt for hereditary rank the possessor of which lacks true virtue and honor reminding the lady of the suicide of another country lad whom she had enticed by feigned affection and then cruelly repudiated and solemnly adjuring her to cease her unworthy and injurious diversion to turn her leisure to some good end and to "pray Heaven for a human heart." 11. It was a sordid commercial marriage. 12. It was an important commercial transaction. 13. Abner sat on the step his ears strained to catch the sound of his wife's voice. 14. I can still see the long desks the maps the teacher's table the old stove which seemed always on the point of collapsing and can smell the odor of perennially wet shoes drying in the hot unventilated room. 15. It is the woman who has walked across the fields on a wild winter night to help a sister woman in her hour of trial the woman who has dressed the new-born baby and composed the limbs of the dead learned the rude surgery of the farm harnessed horses milked cows carried young lambs into the kitchen to save them from perishing in the rough March weather it is she who has seen life. 16. If we find that the wickedness of destructive agitators and the selfish depravity of demagogues have stirred up discontent and strife where there should be peace and harmony and have arrayed against each other interests that should be in hearty coöperation if we find that the old standards of sturdy uncompromising American honesty have become so corroded and weakened by a sordid atmosphere that our people are hardly startled by crime in high *places* and shameful betrayals of trust everywhere if we find a sadly prevalent disposition among us to turn from the high-

way of honorable industry into shorter crossroads leading to irresponsible and worthless ease if we find that widespread wastefulness and extravagance have discredited the wholesome frugality which was once the pride of Americanism we should recall Washington's admonition that harmony industry and frugality are "essential pillars of public felicity" and forthwith endeavor to change our course.

723. Write and punctuate correctly three predications dealing respectively with a steam shovel, a banjo-player, and a peacock; construct each predication thus: Predications to be composed and punctuated

(*a*) subject
(*b*) intervening adverbial phrase or clause
(*c*) predicate

Example

(*a*) The leader of the expedition
(*b*) after conferring several hours with the guides sent by the Croisickese to meet him
(*c*) ordered the men to camp for the night.

NOTE. — In writing this and the following exercises, do not tabulate and mark the members of the predications as is done, for clearness, in the illustrations; write the predications in the usual way — thus: The leader of the expedition, after conferring several hours with the guides sent by the Croisickese to meet him, ordered the men to camp for the night.

724. Write and punctuate correctly three predications dealing respectively with a nursemaid, a polar bear, and the Secretary of War; in each predication use the following structure:

(*m*) verb
(*n*) intervening phrase or clause
(*o*) object

Example

To say that Scott
(*m*) had
(*n*) more than any other man that ever lived
(*o*) a sense of the romantic
seems a slight and superficial tribute.

Follow the directions in the Note under Exercise 723.

725. Write and punctuate correctly three predications dealing respectively with a convict, a stage driver, and a drug store; in each predication use the following structure:

(*m*) verb
(*n*) intervening phrase or clause
(*o*) predicate noun or adjective

Example

Predications to be composed and punctuated

His brave and pathetic life
(*m*) was
(*n*) as all the world knows
(*o*) a consistent practicing of what he preached.

Follow the directions in the Note under Exercise 723.

726. Write and punctuate correctly three predications dealing respectively with a false alarm, a wedding, and a swimming tank; let each predication contain a clause constructed thus:

(*a*) subordinating conjunction
(*b*) interpolated phrase or clause
(*c*) subject and predicate

Examples

1. I will admit
   (*a*) that
   (*b*) in the two great elements of social virtue in respect for the rights of others and in sympathy for the suffering of others
   (*c*) he was deficient.
2. The time now approached
   (*a*) when
   (*b*) struggling to subdue America
   (*c*) England was to be assailed by France Spain and Holland.
3. (*a*) If
   (*b*) after we have warned him so often
   (*c*) he continues to lose

   he has himself to blame.

Follow the directions in the Note under Exercise 723.

727. Write and punctuate correctly three predications dealing respectively with a horse race, an encyclopedia, and a surveyor; in each predication use the following structure:

(*m*) auxiliary
(*n*) interpolated phrase or clause
(*o*) principal verb

Examples

1. Suppose he had done something which
   (*m*) might
   (*n*) by a questionable construction
   (*o*) be brought

   under the head of felony.

Predications to be composed and punctuated

2. The great and victorious empire
   (*m*) had
   (*n*) by the most senseless misgovernment by corruption and by official incompetence
   (*o*) been brought
   to the verge of ruin.
3. He promised that he
   (*m*) would
   (*n*) whenever I should desire it
   (*o*) sell
   my stock and send the proceeds to my office.

Follow the directions in the Note under Exercise 723.

728. Write and punctuate correctly three predications dealing respectively with a schoolhouse, a fisherman, and a yacht, using the following construction:

(*a*) appositive modifier of subject
(*b*) appositive modifier of subject
(*c*) subject and predicate

Example

(*a*) Licentious in his pleasures
(*b*) implacable in his revenge
(*c*) he yet perceived that the prosperity of subjects adds to the strength of government.

Follow the directions in the Note under Exercise 723.

729. Write and punctuate correctly three predications dealing respectively with an architect, the Emperor of Japan, and a poultry farm, using the following construction:

(*a*) absolute phrase
(*b*) *and*
(*c*) absolute phrase
(*d*) subject and predicate

Example

(*a*) The governor approving the plan
(*b*) and
(*c*) nothing having occurred to interfere with its execution
(*d*) Hawkins proceeded to take the necessary measures.

Follow the directions in the Note under Exercise 723.

730. Write and punctuate correctly three predications dealing respectively with a magician, a salesman, and a forger, using the following construction:

Predications to be composed and punctuated

(*a*) subject and verb
(*b*) object with simple modifier
(*c*) object with relative clause
(*d*) object with two relative clauses

NOTE. — A predication constructed in this way contains what is called a climax of sound; that is, *b*, *c*, and *d* constitute a series of parallel members increasing in length and hence producing a climactic effect.

Example

(*a*) Would the governor let out to hire
(*b*) the irresistible energies of the imperial people
(*c*) the skill against which the ablest of the native chiefs were helpless as infants
(*d*) the unconquerable British courage which had so often triumphed over the forces of fanaticism and which is never so stubborn as towards the close of a doubtful and murderous day?

Follow the directions in the Note under Exercise 723.

731. Write and punctuate correctly three predications dealing respectively with a railroad station, a football game, and a fire, using the following construction:

(*a*) subject with short modifier
(*b*) subject with longer modifier
(*c*) subject with longer modifier
(*d*) subject with longer modifier
(*e*) summarizing subject
(*f*) predicate

NOTE. — In such a predication as this, *a*, *b*, *c*, and *d* form a climax of sound. See the Note under Exercise 730.

Example

(*a*) The burning sun
(*b*) the strange vegetation of the palm trees
(*c*) the mosque where the devotee prays with his face toward Mecca
(*d*) the huge trees, older than the Mogul Empire under which the village crowds assemble at their Oriental festivals
(*e*) all these things
(*f*) were to him as the objects amidst which his own life had been passed.

Follow the directions in the Note under Exercise 723.

732. Write and punctuate correctly three predications dealing respectively with a betrayal of trust, an anonymous letter, and a clever artifice, using the following construction:

Predications to be composed and punctuated

(*a*) Substantive clause constructed thus:
(1) conjunction *that* or *whether*
(2) subject
(3) appositive
(4) verb
(5) object with two relative clauses
(*b*) summarizing subject
(*c*) predicate

Example

(*a*) (1) That
(2) Eaton
(3) the man whom I had always loved and trusted above all others
(4) had betrayed
(5) the secret which he had promised to keep and which moreover it was to his interest to keep
(*b*) this supposition
(*c*) was quite incredible

Follow the directions in the Note under Exercise 723.

733. Write and punctuate correctly three predications dealing respectively with a tyrant, a benevolent ruler, and a clergyman, using the following construction:

(*a*) *It was*
(*b*) proper name
(*c*) appositive with simple modifier
(*d*) appositive with relative clause
(*e*) appositive with two relative clauses
(*f*) repetition of *a* and *b*
(*g*) relative clause

Example

(*a*) It was
(*b*) Sheridan
(*c*) the witty Irishman
(*d*) the playwright whose comedies had captivated the whole town
(*e*) the brilliant orator in whose eloquence the gallery delighted whose satire was the dread of his opponents
(*f*) it was Sheridan who now rose and addressed the speaker.

Follow the directions in the Note under Exercise 723.

General Exercises in Separative Punctuation

End and interior punctuation to be determined

734. Study Rules 245, 246, 257, 293, 463. Write the following expressions correctly punctuated and capitalized. 1. Well I must go now good-by I'll see you later. 2. She knew nothing of the world her one duty being the care of her father's house while her sister knew nothing of household affairs and cared nothing for the quiet pleasures of the fireside the opera the ballroom and the promenade absorbing all her interest. 3. As soon as we had finished our lunch we jumped down into the pit this was the entrance to the cave we had come to explore stooping a little in order not to strike our heads on the low roof we entered the cave the boys leading the way with their candles. 4. If one says "a black and white dog" one means one dog the coat of which is partly black and partly white while if one says "a black and a white dog" one means two dogs. 5. I suppose I must go if I don't he'll be anxious. 6. A million dollars would yield an income quite sufficient for my needs and a little to spare thus disposing of the great problem of earning a living allowing me also to devote myself to the good of other people. 7. The postman then approached he would surely stop I thought. 8. Since this is the case I intend either to continue my course in engineering or else at the end of this year to drop this course and begin the study of law making a specialty in the latter case of economics and history.

End and interior punctuation to be determined

735. Study Rules 245, 246, 257, 293, 463. Write the following expressions correctly punctuated and capitalized. 1. It was delightful to have no classes to attend nothing to do but rest and read also to meet my old friends who had come back as I had to spend the vacation at home. 2. This belt runs very slowly and on it the pressman puts the papers they are then carried to the distributing room. 3. At three o'clock the second edition is printed none of this edition is sold in the city. 4. The first papers of the third edition go to the newsdealers these take from fifty to two thousand copies each next the newsboys get their ten or twenty copies each. 5. Should the railroad cut a man's land the man generally has the company agree to build a pass under the track or a roadway over it thus giving the owner easy access to the two fields separated by the track. 6. If that were my good fortune I should surely go next summer to England the country in which my father was born and which I have always longed to visit also to Switzerland for I am certain I should excel in mountain climbing.

After they have decided upon the route they send out
ro parties of surveyors the first party takes surface measure-
ents and drives stakes with the measurements written on
em this party also keeps a careful record of all the
easurements marked on the stakes. 8. Grout is next
rown in and tamped and leveled this forms the body of
e sidewalk.

736. Study Rules 283–285, 386–389. Write the following, punctuating correctly: 1. A gerund may be used in various nstructions for example as subject, object, and appositive. , A gerund may be used in various constructions for example it may be used as a subject, as an object, and as an ppositive. 3. Phrases are of various kinds for example erb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases. 4. Phrases re of various kinds for example there are verb phrases, reposition phrases, adjective phrases. 5. Various accients may interfere with your progress for example flood, re, or earthquake. 6. Various accidents may happen to ou for example you may be delayed by floods or endanered by fire. 7. Laborious scholarship is not inconsistent ith artistic feeling for example Milton and Matthew Arnold ere distinguished both for scholarship and for beautiful oetry. 8. I observe that he misspells many common words or example *simtlar*, *all right*, and *receive*. 9. His spelling s very defective for example he habitually misspells *principal*, *lose*, and *arrange*. 10. He has a certain celebrity as a student of literature for example his monograph on the mischievous valet in Italian comedy is prized by Romance scholars. 11. I hate the various parts of household drudgery for instance sweeping, dish washing, and ice cracking. 12. She is peculiarly averse to all sorts of housework for instance when she has to wash the breakfast dishes, she is irritable for the whole day. 13. Your paper shows serious deficiencies for example it contains misspelling, it is ungrammatical, and it lacks adequate punctuation. 14. Your paper has many serious defects for example misspelling, bad English, and obscure statement. 15. Be sure to bring such tools as may be needed for example files, gimlets, and screwdrivers. 16. He had to work without even the most ordinary tools for example he had no hammer. no saw, and no auger. *For example*

737. Study Rules 283–285, 386–390. Write the following, punctuating correctly: 1. We will first study the so-called predicative part of speech that is the verb. 2. The verb is a predicative word that is it is a word used to assert something. 3. A verb is a predicative word that is a word used *That is*

to assert. 4. You have failed in the study that is of mo consequence to your career that is in chemistry. 5. Rheto is an art that is an act or course of action. 6. Physiology not an art but a science that is one does not practice phys ology but simply learns it. 7. He offered to make a co tract that is a binding agreement. 8. Marriage is a leg contract that is the parties are responsible legally well as morally. 9. I have one valuable privilege that is am allowed to exercise daily in the courtyard. 10. Tak advantage of that privilege you told me about that is you permission to take exercise in the courtyard. 11. We as her only to do her plain duty that is pay the charges sh agreed to pay. 12. She ought to perform her promise tha is she ought to pay the money she subscribed. 13. He the elucidated the subject that is made it clear. 14. Th speaker did what he called elucidating the subject that is h referred to it vaguely and then spoke for an hour on a entirely different matter. 15. He had renounced as he sai the very necessaries of life that is he had stopped going t concerts and art exhibitions. 16. For her sake I will re nounce even my highest pleasure that is the symphony concerts.

Colon for both interior and end punctuation

738. Study Rules 262, 374, 375, 205–207. Write the fol lowing expressions, correctly punctuating and capitalizing: 1. This is my commandment that ye love one another. 2. Our firm has offices in the following countries Austria, France, Italy, and Japan. 3. Success will be assured if you proceed in the following way first turn the paddle two or three times next pour in a few drops of oil. . . . 4. I should be convinced, but for this damning fact a frog was found in the milk can. 5. Figures of speech are divided into the following classes term figures, modal figures, and sentence and paragraph figures. 6. My statement is proved by this fact that when the door was opened, the odor of gin was perceived. 7. The means employed to move motor cars are these four gasoline, steam, electricity, and plow horses. 8. There be three things which are too wonderful for me — yea, four which I know not the way of an eagle in the air, the way of a serpent upon a rock, the way of a ship in the midst of the sea, and the way of a man with a maid. 9. For three things the earth is disquieted for a servant when he reigneth, for a fool when he is filled with meat, and for an odious woman. 10. Cicero then turned upon the traitor with these words "Quousque tandem, Catalina. . . . " 11. The text of Mr. Dunn's resolution is as follows "Whereas the Supreme Ruler of mankind has seen fit. . . . " 12. I

ll accept on this one condition that my power shall be solute. 13. I can say this for him he knows a handsaw om a hawk. 14. The following facts we wish to cite in vor of the plan first the old plan has always proved exceedgly unsatisfactory the experience of President Colburn ay serve as an illustration second the new plan is approved the Reverend Dr. Mannering the most eminent modern uthority on juvenile delinquency third . . .

Designative Punctuation

739. Study Rule 482. Write ten short sentences, using in ach, respectively, the possessive singular of one of the folowing words: *hero*, *John*, *horse*, *senator*, *miner*, *engineer*, *lon*, *husband*, *janitor*, *druggist*. Possessive singular

740. Study Rule 484. Write ten short sentences, using a each, respectively, the possessive plural of one of the folowing words: *hero*, *John*, *horse*, *senator*, *miner*, *engineer*, *lon*, *husband*, *janitor*, *druggist*. Possessive plural

741. Study Rule 483. Write two short sentences, using the possessive singular of *Dickens*, two using the possessive ingular of *Burns*, two using the possessive singular of *Rogers*, two using the possessive singular of *Jones*, two using the possessive singular of *Charles*, two using the possessive singular of *Perkins*, and two using the possessive ingular of *Wilkins*. *Dickens's* etc.

742. Study Rules 482–485. Write the following, inserting apostrophes wherever they are required: 1. We took a few moments rest. 2. My fathers house is larger than yours. 3. The ten Eastern delegates objection was disregarded. 4. I had two weeks vacation on my aunts farm. 5. Peters wifes mother lay sick. 6. Girls costumes are more elaborate than boys. 7. Millionaires lives are not always happy. 8. A bulls neck is thicker than a giraffes. 9. Glue is made of cows hoofs. 10. A weeks work is better than three months vacation. 11. He went to the farmers house to ask for the ladys hand. 12. An agents error is an employers loss. 13. For your souls good you may have an hours reprieve. 14. The singers voice touched the peoples hearts. 15. Smiths son is attending a boys school. 16. Soldiers lives are less eventful than policemens lives. 17. Our dinner consisted of frogs legs and pheasants wings. 18. Kates example affected Marys character. 19. Hamlets unkindness caused Ophelias madness. 20. Laborers wages depend on capitalists pleasure. Miscellaneous possessives of nouns

Its

743. Study Rules 486, 487. Write ten short sentenc using the possessive *its*—not the contraction *it's* (= *it is* but the possessive *its*, used, *e.g.*, in "The city has improv its streets."

Yours, ours, etc.

744. Study Rule 486. Write three short sentences usi *ours*, three using *yours*, three using *hers*, and three usin *theirs*.

Said he interpolated and concluding a predication

745. Study Rules 472–479. Write the following expre sions, punctuating and capitalizing correctly: 1. You a my first patient the doctor said what is your name 2. D not talk at random said Stevens too much improvisatio leaves the mind void 3. Felix is a pretty name said she is Latin I think 4. This is strange said Josephine the coac never stopped here before 5. Listen to me the mayor co tinued there is still room for a man to slip under this ca and raise it 6. I will go at once he repeated does the o woman know the facts 7. Do not interrupt me now sa the lawyer when my clerk returns you may speak to hi 8. Of course I have a mother replied the child hasn't eve one a mother 9. I don't understand you said the peasa what underground passage do you mean 10. We mu hurry along Charles said the old gentleman are you sure th is the right road 11. A mere spark was all that was neede he said the explosion was not surprising 12. This man h saved my life said Gauvain does any one here know who he

Said he with semicolon

746. Study Rules 472–479. Write the following se tences, interpolating the bracketed expressions between th two predications in each sentence, and supplying the nece sary punctuation: 1. Remove this rubbish; I want th room clean [he commanded] 2. Do not stay long; yo will be wanted presently [he said] 3. I am sure it will b pretty; his gifts always are [she said] 4. They are ver good friends; they might be taken for two sisters [she ob served] 5. I have finished; you may go now [said hi father] 6. This is my own affair; you must not interfe [said the colonel] 7. I must start at once; the trial wil occur to-morrow [the lawyer said] 8. Tell him to wait; shall come down presently [she said to the servant] 9. have men enough; there is no need of hiring others [sai Ryan] 10. I knew nothing of this transaction; Georg never mentioned it to me [said I]

Said he interpolated — miscellaneous examples

747. Study Rules 472–479. Write the following expres sions, punctuating and capitalizing correctly: 1. Wel Cosette the landlady said why don't you take your dol

2. It is very simple the man replied she does it because it amuses her 3. I wish to go to bed now said the traveler where is my room 4. That sir Thenardier explained is my wife's wedding bonnet 5. By the way his wife continued don't forget that I mean to turn her out to-morrow 6. And suppose suggested Jean that you were rid of her 7. Where is Frances Street asked the old lady isn't it in this neighborhood 8. Sir he said I need fifty francs 9. Be silent my dear whispered the husband let's see what he will say 10. You are right he exclaimed give me my hat and I'll follow him 11. I ought to have brought my gun he reflected the fellow may be obstinate 12. Well continued the officer we found the door bolted 13. What of that I answered does that prove any bad intention 14. I beg your pardon said Javert the offense was accidental

Said he interpolated — miscellaneous examples

748. Study Rules 472–479. Write the following expressions, punctuating and capitalizing correctly: 1. Who is he every one asked 2. The nun is dead remarked Fauchelevent that is her knell we hear 3. Is she your daughter asked Henry if so of course she is welcome 4. That is the doctor going away the porter said to me he has probably not been able to relieve the patient 5. I don't understand you said Mrs. Bethune of whom are you speaking 6. I will do it Reverend Mother said Fauvent solemnly I will do it just as you direct 7. You have a gimlet remarked Jean Valjean make a few holes in the cover 8. If the weather is good I heard him say I will meet you here at ten 9. Father said the child what is in that box that smells so nice 10. I do my duty said the woman you neglect yours 11. I prefer answered the soldier not to disobey orders. 12. What are you afraid of interrupted Clancy speak up and be quick about it 13. I advise you said Madeleine threateningly not to interrupt me at present 14. Do you wish asked the servant to see my master 15. What did you say asked Bryce 16. Is there any harm in that inquired the girl

Quotation mark with question or exclamation mark

749. Study Rules 502–505. Write the following expressions, punctuating correctly: 1. More often do you say? What do you mean by more often 2. Alas cried the woman where are my children 3. Shall I go and find them asked the priest 4. Instead of asking weakly will you please let me pass why didn't you say sternly let me pass 5. Great heavens exclaimed Bangs in a fury was ever a general addressed in such terms 6. Was it not your duty asked my mother to remain at your post 7. He shrunk back toward the wall crying in the extremity of his terror my God my

God 8. Do you know who it was who died saying don't give up the ship 9. Come sir brace up what do you mean by that melodramatic expression all is lost 10. She kept repeating how wonderful how wonderful 11. His letter says is the messenger dependable how does he come to use that abominable word dependable 12. Ah cried the woman in high indignation how heartless how cruel 13. Why kill so many asked Cimourdain when two would suffice 14. Two said Imanus puzzled what two 15. What poem begins with the words this is the forest primeval 16. Have you ever heard the saying the pen is mightier than the sword 17. Do you consent asked Lantenac 18. Why do you come here thundered the old man who asked you to come 19. What is the meaning of the words the wind bloweth where it listeth 20. I asked is there fighting in Dol He answered yes my ci-devant seigneur is fighting another ci-devant What do you think he meant by my ci-devant seigneur

Exercises in Paragraphing

Paragraphing to be determined

750. Study Rules 536–539. Make an outline showing the thought-components of the following passage. Show two ways of paragraphing the passage in accordance with the Canon of Unity, and discuss the comparative advantage of each way.

Nature has stamped the Indian with a hard and stern physiognomy. Ambition, revenge, envy, jealousy, are his ruling passions; and his cold temperament is little exposed to those effeminate vices which are the bane of milder races. With him revenge is an overpowering instinct; nay, more, it is a point of honor and a duty. His pride sets all language at defiance. He loathes the thought of coercion; and few of his race have ever stooped to discharge a menial office. A wild love of liberty, an utter intolerance of control, lie at the basis of his character, and fire his whole existence. Yet, in spite of his haughty independence, he is a devout hero-worshiper; and high achievement in war or policy touches a chord to which his nature never fails to respond. He looks up with admiring reverence to the sages and heroes of his tribe; and it is this principle, joined to the respect for age springing from the patriarchal element in his social system, which, beyond all others, contributes union and harmony to the erratic members of an Indian community. With him the love of glory kindles into a burning passion; and to allay its cravings, he will dare cold

and famine, fire, tempest, torture, and death itself. These generous traits are overcast by much that is dark, cold, and sinister, by sleepless distrust, and rankling jealousy. Treacherous himself, he is always suspicious of treachery in others. Brave as he is,—and few of mankind are braver,—he will vent his passion by a secret stab rather than an open blow. His warfare is full of ambuscade and stratagem; and he never rushes into battle with that joyous self-abandonment with which the warriors of the Gothic races flung themselves into the ranks of their enemies. In his feasts and his drinking bouts we find none of that robust and full-toned mirth which reigned at the rude carousals of our barbaric ancestry. He is never jovial in his cups, and maudlin sorrow or maniacal rage is the sole result of his potations. Over all emotion he throws the veil of an iron self-control, originating in a peculiar form of pride, and fostered by rigorous discipline from childhood upward. He is trained to conceal passion, and not to subdue it. The inscrutable warrior is aptly imaged by the hackneyed figure of a volcano covered with snow; and no man can say when or where the wild fire will burst forth. This shallow self-mastery serves to give dignity to public deliberation, and harmony to social life. Wrangling and quarrel are strangers to an Indian dwelling; and while an assembly of the ancient Gauls was garrulous as a convocation of magpies, a Roman senate might have taken a lesson from the grave solemnity of an Indian council. In the midst of his family and friends, he hides affections, by nature none of the most tender, under a mask of icy coldness; and in the torturing fires of his enemy, the haughty sufferer maintains to the last his look of grim defiance. His intellect is as peculiar as his moral organization. Among all savages the powers of perception preponderate over those of reason and analysis; but this is more especially the case with the Indian. An acute judge of character, at least of such parts of it as his experience enables him to comprehend; keen to a proverb in all exercises of war and the chase, he seldom traces effects to their causes, or follows out actions to their remote results. Though a close observer of external nature, he no sooner attempts to account for her phenomena than he involves himself in the most ridiculous absurdities; and quite content with these puerilities, he has not the least desire to push his inquiries further. His curiosity, abundantly active within its own narrow circle, is dead to all things

Paragraphing to be determined

else; and to attempt rousing it from its torpor is but a bootless task. He seldom takes cognizance of general or abstract ideas; and his language has scarcely the power to express them, except through the medium of figures drawn from the external world, and often highly picturesque and forcible. The absence of reflection makes him grossly improvident, and unfits him for pursuing any complicated scheme of war or policy.

751. Study Rules 536–538. Make outlines showing the thought-components of the following passages, and show how they should be paragraphed:

A

Paragraphing to be determined

Perhaps the best way of describing Addison's peculiar pleasantry is to compare it with the pleasantry of some other great satirists. The three most eminent masters of the art of ridicule, during the eighteenth century, were, we conceive, Addison, Swift, and Voltaire. Which of the three had the greatest power of moving laughter may be questioned. But each of them, within his own domain, was supreme. Voltaire is the prince of buffoons. His merriment is without disguise or restraint. He gambols; he grins; he shakes his sides; he points the finger; he turns up the nose; he shoots out the tongue. The manner of Swift is the very opposite to this. He moves laughter, but never joins in it. He appears in his works such as he appeared in society. All the company are convulsed with merriment, while the Dean, the author of all the mirth, preserves an invincible gravity, and even sourness of aspect, and gives utterance to the most eccentric and ludicrous fancies, with the air of a man reading the commination service. The manner of Addison is as remote from that of Swift as from that of Voltaire. He neither laughs out like the French wit, nor, like the Irish wit, throws a double portion of severity into his countenance while laughing inwardly; but preserves a look peculiarly his own, a look of demure serenity, disturbed only by an arch sparkle of the eye, an almost imperceptible elevation of the brow, an almost imperceptible curl of the lip. His tone is never that either of a Jack Pudding or of a Cynic. It is that of a gentleman, in whom the quickest sense of the ridiculous is constantly tempered by good nature and good breeding. We own that the humor of Addison is, in our opinion, of a more delicious flavor than the humor of either

Swift or Voltaire. Thus much, at least, is certain, that both Swift and Voltaire have been successfully mimicked, and that no man has yet been able to mimic Addison. The letter of the Abbé Coyer to Pansophe is Voltaire all over, and imposed, during a long time, on the Academicians of Paris. There are passages in Arbuthnot's satirical works which we, at least, cannot distinguish from Swift's best writing. But of the many eminent men who have made Addison their model, though several have copied his mere diction with happy effect, none has been able to catch the tone of his pleasantry. In *The World*, in *The Connoisseur*, in *The Mirror*, in *The Lounger*, there are numerous papers written in obvious imitation of his *Tatlers* and *Spectators*. Most of those papers have some merit; many are very lively and amusing; but there is not a single one which could be passed off as Addison's on a critic of the smallest perspicacity.

B

Paragraphing to be determined

On his way from Venice to Rome, he was drawn some miles out of the beaten road by a wish to see the smallest independent state in Europe. On a rock where the snow still lay, though the Italian spring was now far advanced, was perched the little fortress of San Marino. The roads which led to the secluded town were so bad that few travelers had ever visited it, and none had ever published an account of it. Addison could not suppress a good-natured smile at the simple manners and institutions of this singular community. But he observed, with the exultation of a Whig, that the rude mountain tract which formed the territory of the republic swarmed with an honest, healthy, and contented peasantry, while the rich plain which surrounded the metropolis of civil and spiritual tyranny was scarcely less desolate than the uncleared wilds of America. At Rome Addison remained on his first visit only long enough to catch a glimpse of St. Peter's and of the Pantheon. His haste is the more extraordinary because the Holy Week was close at hand. He has given no hint which can enable us to pronounce why he chose to fly from a spectacle which every year allures from distant regions persons of far less taste and sensibility than his. Possibly, traveling, as he did, at the charge of a government distinguished by its enmity to the Church of Rome, he may have thought that it would be imprudent in him to assist at the most magnificent rite of that church. Many eyes would be upon him,

and he might find it difficult to behave in such a manner as to give offense neither to his patrons in England, nor to those among whom he resided. Whatever his motives may have been, he turned his back on the most august and affecting ceremony which is known among men, and posted along the Appian way to Naples.

C

Paragraphing to be determined

One who wishes to progress in the art of writing and speaking should give much attention to the enlargement of his vocabulary. The more he succeeds in enlarging his vocabulary, the more variety, grace, appropriateness, and power of expression he will gain. In order to accomplish this object, he should first endeavor to enlarge the stock of words which he understands. In the subjoined list how many words are there the meaning of which you do not know with certainty and distinctness? Look through the list asking yourself this question. Note all the words that do not convey a certain and distinct meaning to you, and master them at once by means of a dictionary. And in reading, treat in the same way all unfamiliar words you meet. A second means of enlarging one's vocabulary — a means more important, perhaps, than the first — is the constant endeavor to put the stock of words one knows into actual use. You are doubtless familiar with the meaning of many words in the subjoined list: you understand them clearly when you read them. But of these words that you know how many do you *use* in writing or speaking? You should use them all; but how many *do* you use? Look through the list, asking yourself this question. Words in this list that you know, but do not employ, and words that you meet in reading and recognize as falling within the same class, — try constantly to get such words into habitual use. As an aid in this endeavor, keep a notebook especially for this purpose. Whenever you think of, or notice in reading, a word that is not in your vocabulary but ought to be, write it in your notebook. Look over your list of words frequently; try deliberately to use them on occasion, and presently you will use them spontaneously.

D

Paragraphing to be determined

Last night I dreamt that it was an October evening, and that I was driving slowly along a country road, watching the sun setting behind the woods almost in front of me. When the sun was almost hid, my attention was drawn

to a homestead just ahead of me to my left. The multicolored leaves showed a variety of trees which shaded the large dooryard, in the farther part of which the house stood. Here and there the gold of the maple appeared more brilliant in relief against the plainer yellow of the ash and elm, while at opposite corners stood two tall oaks, like guards, still wearing their leaves green, as if defying the season. Farther back stood a large barn and cribs of corn, giving the place an appearance of prosperity. It was all so inviting that I turned in, for some reason, through the arched gateway and drove up the carriage road along the whitewashed picket fence to the gate before the house. The house had the appearance of a frame-covered log house, and stood facing the east rather than the road. It was painted in rather dull red, but in front had a large, square-pillared porch that looked restful in the twilight. Through the door the flicker of the first-lit lamp seemed to invite me to tarry awhile. I hitched my horse and approached the house, stopping to take a drink from the well near the porch. And before the voice which bade me enter woke me, I saw that this pleasant place was the home where I had often run barefoot.

752. Study Rules 539, 546–549. Show how the paragraphing of the following passages is faulty, and how the passages should be paragraphed.

A

Faulty paragraphing to be corrected

I admit that in external aspect there is a sad monotony in the larger towns of England also. Compare English cities with Italian cities, and most of the former seem like one another, incapable of being, so to speak, individualized as you individualize a man with a definite character and aspect unlike that of other men. Take the Lancashire towns, for instance, large and prosperous places. You cannot individualize Bolton or Wigan, Oldham, or Bury, except by trying to remember that Bury is slightly less rough than Oldham, and Wigan a thought more grimy than Bolton.

But in Italy every city has its character, its memories, its life and achievements wrought into the pillars of its churches and the towers that stand along its ramparts. Siena is not like Perugia, nor Perugia like Orvieto; Ravenna, Rimini, Pesaro, Fano, Ancona, Osimo, standing along the same coast within seventy miles of one another, have each of them a character, a sentiment, what one may call an idiosyncrasy, which comes vividly back

to us at the mention of its name. Now, what English towns are to Italian, that American towns are to English. They are in some ways pleasanter; they are cleaner, there is less poverty, less squalor, less darkness.

But their monotony haunts one like a nightmare. Even the irksomeness of finding the streets named by numbers becomes insufferable. It is doubtless convenient to know by the number how far up the city the particular street is. But you cannot give any sort of character to Twenty-ninth Street, for the name refuses to lend itself to any association. There is something wearisomely hard and bare in such a system.

B

Faulty paragraphing to be corrected

Of the uniformity of political institutions over the whole United States I have spoken already. Everywhere the same system of state governments, everywhere the same municipal governments, and almost uniformly bad or good in proportion to the greater or smaller population of the city, the same party machinery organized on the same methods, "run" by the same wire-pullers, and "workers." In rural local government there are some diversities in the names, areas, and functions of the different bodies, yet differences slight in comparison with the points of likeness. The schools are practically identical in organization, in the subjects taught, in the methods of teaching, though the administration of them is as completely decentralized as can be imagined, even the state commissioner having no right to do more than suggest or report. So it is with the charitable institutions, with the libraries, the lecture courses, the public amusements. All these are more abundant and better of their kind in the richer and more cultivated parts of the country, generally better in the North Atlantic than in the inland States, and in the West than in the South.

But they are the same in type everywhere. It is the same with social habits and usages. There are still some differences between the South and the North; and in the Eastern cities the upper class is more Europeanized in its code of etiquette and its ways of daily life. But even these variations tend to disappear. Eastern customs begin to permeate the West, beginning with the richer families; the South is more like the North than it was before the war. Travel where you will, you feel that what you have found in one place that you will find in another. The thing which hath been, will be; you can no more escape from it than you can quit the land to live in the sea.

A General Exercise

General exercise in spelling, punctuating, capitalizing, italicizing, and paragraphing

753. Write the following passage, correctly punctuating, capitalizing, and paragraphing it: The principal peculiarity of professor collins was absent-mindedness this often led him to mislay or lose articles necessary to his business such as books lecture notes etc one day as he and another professor were walking down a street in the village in which the college was situated professor collins suddenly stopped look perplexed and said why my notes for to-day's lecture have disappeared oh that's all right said his friend smiling give an impromptu lecture the subject is too complicated for that answered professor collins truly this is serious if I don't find those notes soon I must disappoint my class of forty law students what is that in your hand asked his friend a package I intended to mail at that last postbox was the answer it contains some copies of the law review my notes were in a separate envelope of about the same size wait for me a minute said the other professor with a knowing look he went to the post box which they had passed a minute before and took from the top of it a large envelope this he brought to professor collins saying don't lose these necessary things again professor collins delighted at being relieved from the anxiety which he had been suffering seized the package and said gratefully thanks thanks to thee my worthy friend as Longfellow says in his poem the village blacksmith oh never fear I'll not lose them again at least not to-day.

A GRAMMATICAL VOCABULARY EXPLAINING GRAMMATICAL AND OTHER TECHNICAL TERMS USED IN THIS BOOK

Absolute. A substantive with a modifier (usually a participle) attached to a predication but having no syntactic relation to any noun or verb in the predication is called an **absolute substantive.** An absolute substantive and its modifier are together called an **absolute phrase.** The italicized part of the following sentence is an absolute phrase: "*The wind being favorable*, they embarked." For other examples see under Rules 408–413.

Active. See **Voice.**

Adjective. A word used to modify or limit the meaning of a substantive; *e.g.*, *black*, *human*, *old*, *beautiful*, *metallic*, *dry.*

Adjective phrase. See **Phrase.**

Adjunct. Modifiers, objects of verbs, and predicate substantives or predicate adjectives have the general name of adjuncts. A modifier is said to be an adjunct of the element it modifies; an object or a predicate substantive or adjective is said to be an adjunct of the verb it completes.

Adverb. A word used to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs; *e.g.*, *slowly*, *politely*, *accurately*, *very*, *too*, *then*, *up*, *down*, *out.* For the distinction between adverbs and prepositions, see **Preposition.** Concerning **conjunctive adverbs,** see **Conjunction.**

Adverbial clause. A clause used to modify an adjective, an adverb, or a verb; *e.g.*, "He is greater *than his father was*" (the italicized clause modifies the adjective "greater"); "He walked faster *than I did*" (the italicized clause modifies the adverb "faster"); "I will come if my salary is paid when it is due" (the clause "if . . . paid" modifies the verb "will come"; the clause "when . . . due" modifies the verb "is paid"). For other examples see under Rules 250, 348–366.

Adverbial substantive. A substantive used to limit adverbially an adjective, an adverb, or a verb; *e.g.*, "It is worth *ten cents*" ("ten cents" limits the adjective "worth"); "He walked *two miles* farther" ("two miles" limits the adverb "farther"); "He walked *two miles*" ("two miles" limits "walked" adverbially).

Antecedent. The word, as used in this book, means the substantive to which any pronoun refers. In the sentence "He who runs may read," "he" is the antecedent of "who." In the sentence "He picked up a stone and threw it," "stone" is the antecedent of "it."

Antithesis. A sentence or passage presenting a contrast.

Appositive. A substantive attached to another substantive and denoting the same person or thing by a different name is called an appositive, or is said to be in **apposition** with the substantive modified. In the sentence "Edward the king is enjoying his favorite sport — yachting," "king" is in apposition with "Edward," and "yachting" is in apposition with "sport." — Concerning **rhetorical appositives**, see Rule 383.

Appositive adjective. See **Attributive.**

Arabic numbers. The figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc. are Arabic numbers. The figures I, II, III, IV, V, etc. are Roman numbers.

Article. The adjective *the* is called the **definite article**; the adjective *a* or *an* is called the **indefinite article.**

Attributive. An adjective immediately preceding its substantive and closely connected with it (*e.g.*, "a *big* man," "the *black* ink," "*happy* children") is an **attributive adjective.** An adjective less closely connected with its substantive and yet not a predicate adjective (*q.v.*) is an **appositive adjective**; *e.g.*, "*Angry* and *hurt*, he refused to speak." "The Washington Monument, *tall* and *white*, appeared in the distance."

Auxiliary. The verbs *be*, *have*, *do*, *shall*, *will*, *may*, *can*, *must*, and *ought*, with their inflectional forms (*e.g.*, *was*, *am*, *did*, *should*, *might*, *could*, etc.), when they assist in forming the voices, modes, and tenses of other verbs, are called auxiliaries. The italicized words following are auxiliaries: "*Have* you gone?" "I *did* not see," "He *has* not *been* heard," "I *should be* grieved if it *was* broken."

Bare subject and predicate. See **Subject.**

Cardinal number. The words *one*, *two*, *three*, and the corresponding words for other numbers are cardinal numbers; the words *first*, *second*, *third*, etc. are **ordinal numbers.**

Case. The different forms that a substantive takes when it stands in different syntactic relations are called cases. The form or pair of forms (singular and plural) that a substantive takes when it is the subject of a finite verb is called the **nominative case**; the form or pair of forms that it takes when it modifies another substantive by indicating a possessor is called the **possessive case**;

the form or pair of forms that it takes when it is the object of a verb or a preposition is called the **objective case.** The three cases of typical nouns and of the principal pronouns that are inflected are shown in the tables of declension under **Substantive.** It will be observed that in the nouns the nominative and objective cases are identical, but that in the pronouns they are (with the exception of the nominative and objective singular of *it*) distinct.

Clause. A group of words composed of a subject and a predicate and combined with another group of words likewise composed. In the sentence (*a*) "When I awake, I am still with thee," the two groups of words separated by the comma are clauses. A clause that plays the part of a constituent element (a subject, a predicate substantive, a modifier, etc.) in the clause with which it is combined is a **dependent** or **subordinate clause** (see **Substantive clause, Relative clause,** and **Adverbial clause**). A clause that does not form a constituent part of another, but makes an independent assertion, is a **principal,** or **independent, clause.** The italicized groups of words in the following sentences are principal clauses: (*b*) "If the rope breaks, *he is lost.*" (*c*) "*The bell sounded,* and *every one rose.*" A principal clause on which a subordinate clause depends is called a **governing clause** — *e.g.*, the principal clause in sentence *b*, above. Clauses that play the same part in a sentence, whether they are alike principal or alike dependent, are called **coördinate clauses.** See, *e.g.*, the two principal clauses in sentence *c*, above; and the two dependent clauses in the following sentence: (*d*) "*Though I am tired,* and *though my shoes pinch,* I am going on."

Common noun. A noun used to designate any member of a class; *e.g.*, *man, ruler, country, city, street, building.* A noun used to distinguish an individual member of a class from other members is a **proper noun**; *e.g.*, *John, Anderson, Cæsar, Germany, Boston, Broadway, Acropolis.* A **proper name** is an appellation of any kind (including proper nouns) used to distinguish an individual person or thing; *e.g.*, *Henry the Second* (or *Henry II*), *Revolutionary War, First National Bank, Democratic Party, Second Presbyterian Church, Domesday Book, Forty-first Street, Ohio River, Niagara Falls, Edgar County, Calegonian Literary Society, Sumner High School, Columbia College, Morningside Park.*

Comparative. See **Comparison.**

Comparison. When an adjective or an adverb is in the inflectional form that simply designates a quality or manner without indicating the degree in which that quality or manner is present, it is said to be in the **positive degree**; this form is, with a few

exceptions, the shortest form the word can have — *e.g.*, *sweet strong*, *fast*, *hard*. An adjective or an adverb is said to be in the **comparative degree** (1) when it is in the form which indicates that the quality or manner is present in a greater measure relatively to some standard (*i.e.*, with a few exceptions, the form ending in *er*, as *sweeter*, *stronger*, *faster*, *harder*), or (2) when its positive form is combined with *more* (*e.g.*, *more sweet*, *more strong*, *more rapidly*, *more laboriously*). An adjective or an adverb is in the **superlative degree** (1) when it is in the inflectional form ending in *st* (*e.g.*, *sweetest*, *strongest*, *most*, *best*), or (2) when its positive form is combined with *most* (*e.g.*, *most sweet*, *most rapidly*). The formation of the three degrees of an adjective or an adverb is called **comparison**.

Complete independent predication. See Section 243.

Component predication. See Section 241.

Component (thought). See Section 536.

Compound predication. See Sections 238–240.

Compound relative. In "Give me what is dearest to you," "what" is a relative pronoun, subject of "is." But what is the object of "give"? The object of "give" is implied in the word "what"; *i.e.*, "give me *what* is dearest" = "give me *the thing which* is dearest." The relative pronoun *what*, thus serving as a relative pronoun and also serving to imply an antecedent, is therefore called a **compound relative** pronoun. *Who* and *which*, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whoso* (archaic), *whatever*, and *whichever* are also used as compound relatives; *e.g.*, "Tell me which you want," "Here is money for whoever wants it," "Send whoever wishes to go."

Compound word. A word formed by the combination of two or more words which are (or once were) used separately in English — *e.g.*, *blacksmith* (= *black* + *smith*). A word formed by the combination of a word which is used separately and a prefix or suffix which is not used separately in English discourse is a **derivative word**. *Kingdom*, for instance, is not compound, but derivative, for *dom* is used only as a suffix. Further examples:

Compound words

a castaway	northwest
dark-skinned	outlet
everlasting	outstretch
fearless	overcome
fishpole	overfrequent
gemlike	penholder
gentleman	telltale
horseback	truthful
income	underbid
inkwell	whoever
knee-deep	nevertheless

Derivative words

beguile	northern
brooklet	princess
calmness	sharpen
dishonest	stealthy
endear	suckling
heating	sweeter
manly	warmth

Conditional. See **Mode.**

Conjugation. See **Inflection.**

Conjunction. A word used to connect one word with another or one group with another; *e.g.*, *and*, *if*, *for*. Conjunctions may be distinguished from prepositions (*q.v.*) by the following fact: Any conjunction can be used to connect one predication with another (*e.g.*, "*I opened the door* when *he rapped*") — an office which a preposition cannot perform; one of the two elements connected by a preposition must always be a substantive (*e.g.*, "*He fell* into *the cold water*"). — **Coördinating conjunctions** are those which, when they join two predications, make those predications of equal rank — neither dependent on the other; *e.g.*, "*I called* and *they came.*" The principal coördinating conjunctions are the **pure conjunctions**, *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, *neither*, and *for*; the **correlative conjunctions**, *both . . . and*, *either . . . or*, *neither . . . nor*; and the **conjunctive adverbs**, *so also*, *therefore*, *hence*, *however*, *nevertheless*, *moreover*, *accordingly*, *besides*, *thus*, *then*, *still*, *yet*, etc. (See Sections 343, 393.) **Subordinating conjunctions** are those which, when they join two predications, make one of those predications subordinate to the other; *e.g.*, "*They came* when *I called.*" The principal subordinating conjunctions are *if*, *though*, *whether*, *lest*, *unless*, *than*, *as*, *that*, *because*, *since*, *when*, *while*, *before*, *after*, *whereas*, *provided.*

Conjunctive adverbs. Words that are used sometimes as adverbs and sometimes as conjunctives. See **Conjunction.**

Consonant. See **Vowel.**

Construction. The grammatical office performed by any word in a given predication is called the construction of that word. For example, in "He walks fast," the construction of "he" is that of subject of "walks"; the construction of "walks" is that of predicate of "he"; the construction of "fast" is that of adverbial modifier of "walks."

NOTE. — The question "What is the construction of such and such a word?" is not answered by the statement that the word is a noun, or a verb, or some other part of speech.

Question: In "Give it to me," what is the construction of "me"?

Wrong answer: "Me" is a pronoun.
Right answer: "Me" is the object of the preposition "to."

Coördinate. Elements that are in the same construction within a predication are coördinate. In the predication "He and she talked long and earnestly and at last agreed," "he" and "she," "talked" and "agreed," "long" and "earnestly" are coördinate.

Coördinate clause. See **Clause.**

Coördinating Conjunction. See **Conjunction.**

Declension. See **Inflection.**

Demonstrative pronouns. The words *this* and *these*, *that* and *those*, when they are used as substantives; *e.g.*, "That is not true," "What is this?" When *this*, *these*, *that*, and *those* are used as adjectives (*e.g.*, "this man," "those men"), they are called demonstrative adjectives.

Dependent clause. See **Clause.**

Derivative. See **Compound.**

Direct address. Discourse in the second person (see **Person**, end).

Direct question. See **Direct quotation.**

Direct quotation (often called direct discourse). Quotation of discourse exactly as it was spoken or written; *e.g.*, *He said "I will help."* Statement of the substance of quoted discourse without the use of the exact words is **indirect quotation** (or indirect discourse); *e.g.*, *He said that he would help.* A question indirectly quoted is called an **indirect question**; *e.g.*, *He asked whether I would help.* A question directly quoted, or not quoted but directly asked, is a **direct question**; *e.g.*, *Will you help?*

Elliptical clause. A clause from which the bare subject and predicate are omitted; *e.g.*, "*When young*, I hunted rabbits" ("when young" is put for "when *I was* young"), "*Though a grammarian*, he is human" ("though a grammarian" is put for "though *he is* a grammarian").

Expletive. A word occurring in connected discourse and, in its context, expressing no definite idea other than is expressed by other words in the context. The parenthetic (392) expletives *yes* and *no* serve merely to reënforce the thought of the predications with which they are combined; *e.g.*, "Yes, I know it," "No, I have never been there." The parenthetic expletives *why*, *now*, and *well* are used merely to accompany a predication somewhat in the manner of a gesture; *e.g.*, "You know Wilkes. *Well*, last Sunday he and I went walking. *Now*, it was a pleasant day, and Wilkes

wanted me to go out to see the Mertouns in Clyde's Crossing. I said, '*Why*, I don't know the Mertouns' . . ." The word **there** is often **used as an expletive** adverb, in much the same way as a provisional subject (*q.v.*); for example, "There are many lions in Africa." "There is a hole in my pocket." "What is there for me to do?" "Would there were no sadness in store for you!"

Finite. See **Mode.**

Future. See **Tense.**

Future perfect. See **Tense.**

Gerund. A verb form ending in *ing* is called a gerund when it is used as a noun. When such a form is used as an adjective, it is called a **participle.** In the sentence "Coming close, he whispered," "coming" is used as an adjective modifying "he" and is therefore a participle. In the sentence "His coming was expected," "coming" is used as a noun, the subject of "was expected," and is therefore a gerund. A gerund may fulfill the principal offices of a noun. It may be the subject of a verb (*e.g.*, "Fishing is tiresome"); the object of a verb (*e.g.*, "I hate fishing"); the object of a preposition (*e.g.*, "I have an aversion to fishing"); a predicate noun (*e.g.*, "What I most detest is fishing"); an appositive (*e.g.*, "That detestable amusement, fishing, I cannot endure"); or an absolute noun (*e.g.*, "Fishing being my aversion, let us not fish").

Gerund phrase. See **Phrase.**

Govern. The relation between a verb and its object may be stated either by saying that the substantive is the object of the verb, or by saying that the verb governs the substantive. Likewise the relation between a preposition and its object may be stated by saying that the preposition governs the substantive. A clause, whether principal or subordinate, on which another clause depends, is said to govern the latter clause. In the sentence "She wept when she saw the injury that had been done," the clause "she wept" governs the clause "when she saw the injury," and the latter clause governs the clause "that had been done."

Grammar. The science that deals with (1) the classification of words with reference to the functions they perform in discourse (see **Parts of Speech**); (2) the inflection of words (see **Inflection**); and (3) the relations that words bear to one another in discourse (see **Syntax**).

Imperative. See **Mode.**

Indefinite pronoun. The words *each*, *either*, *neither*, *some*, *any*, *many*, *few*, *all*, *both*, *one*, *none*, *aught*, *naught*, *somebody*, *something*,

somewhat, *anybody*, *anything*, *everybody*, *everything*, *nobody*, and *nothing*, when they are used as substantives, are called indefinite pronouns.

Independent predication. See Section 242.

Independent clause. See **Clauses.**

Indicative. The set of inflectional forms and of combinations with auxiliary verbs that a speaker uses when he conceives the action of a verb as a fact, is not the same as the set he uses when he conceives the action as doubtful. Compare, for example, the sentences "He *is* a coward" and "If he *be* a coward, he should be dismissed." The former set is called the **indicative mode** of a verb; the latter the **subjunctive mode.** The indicative and subjunctive forms of a typical verb are shown on pages 379–384.

Indirect question. See **Direct quotation.**

Indirect quotation. See **Direct quotation.**

Infinitive. That inflectional form of a verb which may be combined with *to* (as in the sentences "To err is human," "I wish to go," "He refused to move," "It is impossible to see") is called an infinitive when it is used in one of the following ways: (1) in combination with *to*, as illustrated above; (2) in combination with an auxiliary verb (*e.g.*, "I will go," "I can see"); (3) as the predicate of a substantive, the whole predication being the object of another verb (*e.g.*, "It made me gasp," "I saw him smile"); (4) in one of the constructions of a substantive (*e.g.*, "Do you dare go in?" in which "go" is the object of "dare"). The word *to* when it is combined with an infinitive is not a preposition; it is merely a sort of prefix, serving no grammatical purpose except to show that the verb form following is an infinitive. For this reason it is called the **sign of the infinitive** or the **infinitive sign.** The infinitive sign is not a necessary part of the infinitive. In the sentences "I cannot see," "I dare go," "Will you come?" "I heard the clock strike," "You had better speak," the words "see," "go," "come," "strike," and "speak" are infinitives, though the infinitive sign does not accompany them. In mentioning an infinitive, the infinitive sign may with equal correctness be put before the infinitive or be omitted; thus we may say either "The verbs *to stand* and *to sit* are intransitive," or "The verbs *stand* and *sit* are intransitive." — The use of infinitives in various substantive constructions is an important matter for the student to understand. An infinitive may be used (1) as the subject of a verb (*e.g.*, "To read history is instructive"); (2) as the object of a verb (*e.g.*, "I like to read history"); (3) as a predicate noun (*e.g.*, "An instructive occupation is to read history"); (4) as an appositive (*e.g.*, "It is in-

structive to read history"); (5) as an absolute noun (*e.g.*, "To read history being so instructive, let us read it"); (6) as an adverbial noun (*e.g.*, "History is instructive to read").

Inflection. Change in the form of a word to show variation of meaning (as with inflections of number, comparison, and tense), or to show the relation of a word to another word (as with the inflections of case and person). The inflection of substantives is called **declension**, that of adjectives and adverbs **comparison** (*q.v.*), and that of verbs **conjugation**. The various forms that a word receives in inflection are its **inflectional forms**; *e.g.*, *love*, *lovest*, *loveth*, *loved*, *lovedst*, and *loving* are the inflectional forms of the verb *to love; man*, *man's*, *men*, *men's* are the inflectional forms of the noun *man;* see also the tables under **Substantive** and opposite **Verb**. The simplest inflectional form of a word is called the **stem**; *e.g.*, of the forms *love*, *lovest*, *loved*, *loving*, *loveth*, the form *love* is the stem; of the forms *fair*, *fairer*, *fairest*, the form *fair* is the stem.

Intensive. The pronouns *myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *yourself*, *themselves*, and *oneself*, when they are used in apposition, are called intensives (*e.g.*, "I myself will do it," "He saw the bishop himself"). When they are used as the object of a verb and designate the same person or thing as the subject of that verb, they are called **reflexives** (*e.g.*, "I hurt myself," "They benefit themselves").

Interjection. A word that expresses emotion and that has no syntactic relations with other words; *e.g.*, *oh*, *alas*, *ha*, *ah*, *hello*, *hurrah*, *huzza*.

Interrogative pronoun. The words *who*, *what*, *which*, and *whether* (archaic), when they are used as substantives and in an interrogative sense (*e.g.*, "Who are you?" "What do you want?" "Which do you choose?" "Whether of the twain is justified?"), are called interrogative pronouns. *What* and *which*, when they are used as adjectives and in an interrogative sense (*e.g.*, "What song did you sing?" "Which book do you choose?"), are called **interrogative adjectives**.

Intransitive. See **Transitive**.

Limit. The object of a verb is said to limit the verb; the object of a preposition is said to limit the preposition; and any modifier is said to limit the element it modifies.

Mode. A mode of a verb is that set of inflectional forms and verb phrases which a speaker uses to represent the action of the verb in a certain mode (*i.e.*, manner). The set which he uses to represent the action as a fact is the **indicative mode**; that which he uses to represent the action as doubtful, the **subjunctive mode**;

that which he uses to represent the action as conditioned on something, the **conditional mode**; that which he uses to represent the action as permitted or possible, the **potential mode**; that which he uses to represent the action as obligatory, the **obligative mode**; that which he uses in giving a command, the **imperative mode**; that which he uses when he employs the verb as a substantive, the **infinitive mode** (the forms constituting this mode are called some **infinitives** and others **gerunds**); that which he uses when he employs the verb as an adjective, the **participial mode** (the forms constituting this mode are called **participles**). The indicative, subjunctive, conditional, potential, obligative, and imperative modes are called **finite modes**; the others, **non-finite modes**. (See also **Indicative, Infinitive, Gerund,** and **Participle.**) The different modes of a typical verb are shown on pages 379–384.[1]

Modifier. See **Modify.**

Modify. A word which, by being combined in discourse with another word or expression, is made to mean something different from what it would mean if it stood alone, is said to be modified by that other word or expression. Thus, the meaning of the sentence "I dislike oranges" is changed if we insert *sour*, so that the sentence reads "I dislike sour oranges"; it is changed because "sour oranges" means something different from "oranges"; "sour" is therefore said to modify (*i.e.*, change) "oranges." Likewise "many men" and "few men" mean something different from "men"; "many" and "few" modify "men." "Call softly" means something different from "call"; "softly" modifies "call." "I hate women who use slang" means something different from "I hate women"; "who use slang" modifies "women." A word or expression which thus changes the meaning of another word is called a **modifier.** — The modifiers of substantives are adjectives (including participles), adjective phrases, adjective clauses, appositives, and substantives in the possessive case. The modifiers of adjectives, verbs, and adverbs are adverbs, adverb phrases, adverbial clauses, and adverbial substantives. Vocatives and absolute phrases may be considered modifiers of predications.

Monosyllabic. See **Monosyllable.**

[1] The classification of certain verb phrases as the conditional mode, the potential mode, and the obligative mode has been adopted here and in the paradigm on pp. 379 ff., upon considerations which seem to me to outweigh the objections that may properly be made on philological grounds. These considerations are stated in Whitney's *Essentials of English Grammar*, pp. 120 ff., particularly 126; and MacEwan's *The Essentials of the English Sentence*, p. 53.

Monosyllable. A word of one syllable (*e.g.*, *word*, *one*, *stop*, *strength*) is said to be a monosyllable, or to be monosyllabic.

Nominative. See **Case.**

Non-restrictive. See Sections 334, 252.

Noun. See **Substantive.**

Number. When a substantive is in an inflectional form which shows that one person or thing is designated (*e.g.*, *boy*, *boy's*), it is said to be in the **singular number**; when in an inflectional form which shows that more than one person or thing are designated (*e.g.*, *boys*, *boys'*), it is said to be in the **plural number.** The forms constituting the singular and plural numbers of typical nouns and of the principal inflected pronouns are shown in the tables under **Substantive.** When a verb is in an inflectional form properly used with a singular subject (*e.g.*, *am*, *was*, *takes*, *goest*), the verb is said to be in the singular number; when in a form properly used with a plural subject (*e.g.*, *are*, *were*, *take*, *go*), it is said to be in the plural number. (See pages 379–384.)

Object. A substantive used in connection with a verb and designating the person or thing upon whom or which the action of the verb is represented as taking effect is called the object of the verb. In the following sentences the italicized words are the objects of the respective verbs: "I built a *house*," "I wrote a *letter*," *Whom* do you wish?" A substantive that designates the person or thing directly affected by the action of a verb (as the objects in the foregoing examples do) is called a **direct object**; one that designates the person or thing indirectly affected is called an **indirect object** — *e.g.*, the italicized words in the sentences following: "I built my *wife* a house," "I wrote *him* a letter." — Regarding the object of a preposition, see **Preposition.**

Objective. See **Case.**

Ordinal. See **Cardinal.**

Parenthesis. Matter which is parenthetic (see Section 392). **Also, a** parenthesis mark.

Parenthetic. See Section 392.

Parenthetic phrase. See Section 402.

Part of speech. A part of speech is a body of words which all perform the same function in discourse. The parts of speech generally recognized by grammarians, as the classes into which all words in the English language are divided, are eight in number; *viz.*, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. A single word (simple or compound)

belonging to one of these classes is also called a part of speech; *e.g.*, we say that in "He brought a two-by-four," "two-by-four" is used as a single part of speech — that is, as a noun.

Participial phrase. See **Phrase.**

Participle. The word *participle* as ordinarily used means a verb form like *moving* or *moved*, when that form is used with the value of an adjective, as in "We are moving to-day," "The piano has been moved." For further information, see **Gerund, Mode,** and **Verb.**

Passive. See **Voice.**

Past tense. See **Tense.**

Past perfect. See **Tense.**

Perfect. See **Tense.**

Person. The words *I* (with its inflectional forms *me*, *we*, etc.; see the tables under **Substantive**), *myself*, *ourselves*, and the relative *who*, when its antecedent is one of the foregoing words, are called **pronouns of the first person.** The words *thou* (with its inflectional forms *thee*, *you*, etc.; see **Substantive**), *thyself*, *yourself*, *yourselves*, and the relative *who*, when its antecedent is one of the foregoing words, are called **pronouns of the second person.** The relative *who*, when used otherwise than as above mentioned, all other pronouns than those above mentioned, and all nouns, are said to belong to the **third person.** — A verb form or verb phrase that may correctly be used with a subject in the first person is said to belong to the **first person of the verb** (*e.g.*, *am*, *are bound*); one that may correctly be used with a subject in the second person is said to belong to the **second person of the verb** (*e.g.*, *art*, *hast*, *gone*); one that may correctly be used with a subject in the third person is said to belong to the **third person of the verb** (*e.g.*, *is*, *does*, *has gone*). (See pages 379 ff.) — Discourse is said to be **in the first person** when the speaker designates himself by pronouns of the first person (*e.g.*, the Twenty-third Psalm); **in the second person** when the speaker addresses some person or thing, using pronouns of the second person (*e.g.*, the Lord's Prayer); **in the third person** when neither pronouns of the first person nor pronouns of the second person are used (*e.g.*, the present sentence).

Personal pronouns. The words *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, and *it*, together with their inflectional forms (see the tables under **Substantive**), are called personal pronouns.

Phrase. The term *phrase* is often used to mean any short group of words; as "the slang phrase 'That's hard lines.'" But as the term is used in grammar, a phrase is a group of words not con-

stituting a predication. (A phrase may, however, *contain* a predication; *e.g.* "*in the trunk which he brought.*") A **verb phrase** is a combination of a principal verb and one or more auxiliaries that is analogous to a single inflectional form (*e.g.*, *has gone*, *shall have done*). A **preposition phrase** is a combination of words analogous to a single preposition (*e.g.*, *in regard to*, *as for*). An **adjective phrase** is a phrase used to modify a substantive (*e.g.*, "A machine *of great value*"). An **adverb phrase** is a phrase used analogously to an adverb (*e.g.*, "He fell *into the water*"). Any phrase consisting of a preposition and its object is a **prepositional phrase** (a term not to be confused with *preposition phrase*); *e.g.*, the adjective and adverb phrases above quoted are prepositional phrases. A **participial phrase** is a phrase consisting of a participle and its adjuncts (*e.g.*, "*Looking to the north*, I saw the lake"). A **gerund phrase** is a prepositional phrase in which the preposition governs a gerund (*e.g.*, *in talking*, *instead of shooting*). Concerning **absolute phrases**, see **Absolute**.

Plural. See **Number**.

Possessive adjective. The words *my*, *mine*, *our*, *ours*, *thy*, *thine*, *your*, *yours*, *his*, *her*, *hers*, *its*, *their*, *theirs*, and *whose* are called possessive adjectives, or possessives, as well as inflectional forms of personal pronouns.

Possessive case. See **Case**.

Possessive substantive. A substantive in the possessive case; *e.g.*, "the *king's* pleasure," "the *rector's* house," "*Scott's* novels," "my *aunt's* death."

Predicate. See **Subject**.

Predicate adjective. See **Predicate complement**.

Predicate complement. A substantive designating what a verb asserts a person or thing to be is a **predicate substantive** (*e.g.*, "He is a *carpenter*," "These are *strawberries*"). An adjective designating a quality which a verb asserts belongs to a person or thing is a **predicate adjective** (*e.g.*, "He is *skillful*," "These berries are *sweet*"). A predicative substantive, or a predicate adjective, or a phrase or clause used as the one or the other, is said to be the **predicate complement** of the verb it completes.

Predicate substantive. See **Predicate complement**.

Predication. See Sections 236 ff.

Prefix. A word or a syllable *put before* is said to be prefixed, or to be a prefix; *e.g.*, in *steamboat*, *steam* is prefixed to *boat*; in *become*, *be* is prefixed to *come*. A word or a syllable *put after* is said to

be suffixed, or to be a **suffix**; *e.g.*, in *hammered*, *ed* is suffixed to *hammer*.

Preposition. A word used to show the relation of a substantive to another word; *e.g.*, *in*, *on*, *into*, *toward*, *from*, *for*, *against*, *of*, *between*, *with*, *without*, *within*, *before*, *behind*, *under*, *over*, *above*, *among*, *at*, *by*, *around*, *about*, *through*, *throughout*, *beyond*, *across*, *along*, *beside*. A preposition always requires to complete its meaning a substantive, with which it combines into what is felt to be a unit of expression; *e.g.*, "in the water," "into the house," "among the leaves," "behind the house." This fact distinguishes prepositions from adverbs, which do not require a substantive to complete them; *e.g.*, "Go out," "Come in," "Please walk before." (*In*, *before*, *on*, *for*, *but*, *across*, and many other English words belong each one to several parts of speech; there is a preposition *across* and an adverb *across*, a preposition *for* and a conjunction *for*, etc.) For the distinction between prepositions and conjunctions, see **Conjunction**. The substantive combined with a preposition in the manner illustrated above is called the **object of the preposition.**

Present. See **Tense.**

Present third singular. A verb in the active voice, indicative mode, present tense, third person, and singular number; *e.g.*, *is*, *goes*, *has*, *tells*, *seems*, *writes*.

Principal. Any modified element is called a **principal** with respect to its modifier; and any modifier is called a **subordinate element** with respect to its principal.

Principal clause. See **Clause.**

Principal parts. The principal parts of any verb are (1) the present infinitive, (2) the past first singular, and (3) the past participle (see **Verb**); *e.g.*, *flee*, *fled*, *fled*; *choose*, *chose*, *chosen*; *love*, *loved*, *loved*; *set*, *set*, *set*.

Principal verb. A verb not used as an auxiliary, including the auxiliaries themselves when they are used independently (*e.g.*, "I *have* a boat," "He *did* wonders").

Pronoun. See **Substantive.**

Proper name. See **Common Noun.**

Proper noun. See **Common Noun.**

Provisional subject. In the sentence "It is hard to make a living," "it" is called the provisional subject of "is," because, though it is grammatically the subject of "is," yet "to make a living" is the thing about which the speaker wishes to make the assertion;

"it" is therefore said to be used provisionally, or temporarily, until the words "to make a living" are given. "To make a living" is called the effective subject, as distinguished from the provisional subject. The use of *it* as a provisional subject is very common. Other examples are "It is delightful to have you here," "It was a pity that he could not come," "How sad it is to see the old tree die!" "What is it to grow old?"

Pure adverbs. See Section 343.

Pure coördinating conjunctions. See Section 237.

Relative clause. A clause used to modify a substantive in the manner of an adjective; *e.g.*, "The rain *that fell yesterday* was a blessing" (the italicized clause modifies the noun "rain"); "The house *where he used to live* is vacant" (the italicized clause modifies the noun "house"); "There was once a city *on the outskirts of which lay a pestilential morass*" (the italicized clause modifies the noun "city"). For other examples see under Rule 336. Relative clauses are often called adjective clauses.

Relative pronoun. The words *that*, *who*, *what*, *which*, *whoever*, *whatever*, and *whichever*, when they are used as substantives and in such a way that the clauses in which they stand are made relative clauses (*q.v.*), are called **relative pronouns.** The words *what*, *which*, *whatever*, and *whichever*, when they are used as adjectives and in such a way that the clauses in which they stand are made relative clauses, are called **relative adjectives.**

Restrictive. See Sections 334, 252.

Rhetorical. Pertaining to the impression conveyed by discourse to the reader's or hearer's mind. Distinguished from *grammatical*, which means *pertaining merely to the way discourse is put together, without reference to its effect on the mind.*

Rhetorical appositive. See Rule 383.

Sentence. A sentence is (1) a complete independent predication, actual or virtual; or (2) two or more such predications written with such punctuation and capitalization, or spoken with such slight pauses between them, as will indicate that they are to be taken as a rhetorical unit. All complete independent predications, actual or virtual, are sentences. Many sentences, however, are not single complete independent predications, but groups of such predications. For example, the following expressions are sentences, but none is a single complete independent predication: "I came, I saw, I conquered." "She was a princess; I was but a Viking." "Must I obey you? must I crouch before you?" See further page xi.

Separate predication. See Section 241.

Simple predication. See Section 238

Singular. See **Number.**

Stem. See **Inflection.**

Subject. A substantive combined in discourse with a verb (except a gerund or a participle) and representing the person or thing regarding which the verb asserts something is called the **subject** of the verb; and the verb, in turn, is called the **predicate** of the substantive, or is said to be **predicated of** the substantive. Thus, in the expression "He goes," "he" is the subject of "goes," and "goes" is the predicate of "he." The words *subject* and *predicate* are often (in this book and elsewhere) used to designate respectively a subject and a predicate, as above defined, together with any adjuncts they may have. Thus in the predication "The plowman homeward plods his weary way," the phrase "the plowman" may be said to be the subject and the phrase "homeward plods his weary way" the predicate; or the noun "plowman" alone may be said to be the subject and the verb "plods" the predicate. A subject without its adjuncts is called a **bare subject**; a subject together with its adjuncts is called a **complete subject**; *e.g.*, "plowman" is the bare subject, "the plowman" the complete subject of the predication last quoted. Likewise, a **bare predicate** is a predicate without its adjuncts, and a **complete predicate** is a predicate together with its adjuncts; *e.g.*, in the predication quoted, "plods" is the bare predicate, "homeward plods his weary way" the complete predicate. — Concerning **provisional subjects** see that title.

Subjunctive. See **Mode** and **Indicative.**

Subordinate. See **Principal.**

Subordinate clause. See **Clause.**

Substantive. A substantive is a word by which, as by a name, some person or thing is called; *e.g.*, *man*, *house*, *happiness*, *beauty*, *song*, *speech*, *Jupiter*, *Charlemagne*, *he*, *she*. A few substantives are called **pronouns**; these are as follows: *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*, and their compounds ending in *self* or *selves*; *this*, *that*; *who*, *what*, *which*, *whether*, and their compounds ending in *ever* or *soever*; *each*, *either*, *neither*, *some*, *any*, *many*, *few*, *all*, *both*, *aught*, *naught*, *such*, *other*, *one*, *none*, and a few others. The pronouns are divided into five classes: personal, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, and indefinite pronouns (see these headings in the Vocabulary). All substantives other than pronouns are called **nouns.** — The declension of typical nouns and of the principal pronouns that are inflected is shown in the following tables:

DECLENSION OF NOUNS

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	boy	boys
Poss.	boy's	boys'
Obj.	boy	boys
Nom.	man	men
Poss.	man's	men's
Obj.	man	men

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS

	Singular	*Plural*
Nom.	I	we
Poss.	my, mine	our, ours
Obj.	me	us
Nom.	thou	ye, you
Poss.	thy, thine	your, yours
Obj.	thee	you
Nom.	he	they
Poss.	his	their, theirs
Obj.	him	them
Nom.	she	they
Poss.	her, hers	their, theirs
Obj.	her	them
Nom.	it	they
Poss.	its	their, theirs
Obj.	it	them
Nom.	who	who
Poss.	whose	whose
Obj.	whom	whom

A substantive may be used syntactically in the following ways (which are explained in this Vocabulary under the appropriate headings): (1) as a subject, (2) as a predicate substantive, (3) as an appositive, (4) as a possessive substantive, (5) as the object of a verb, (6) as the object of a preposition, (7) as an adverbial substantive, and (8) as an absolute substantive.

Substantive clause. A clause may be used as the subject of a verb (*e.g.*, "*That he is a scholar* is certain"); as the object of a verb (*e.g.*, "I know *that he is a scholar*"); as the object of a preposition (*e.g.*, "There is no doubt as to *whether he is a scholar*"); as a predicate substantive (*e.g.*, "The truth is *that he is a scholar*"); as an appositive (*e.g.*, "This is certain — *that he is a scholar*"); as an adverbial substantive (*e.g.*, "I am sure *that*

he is a scholar") ; and as an absolute substantive (*e.g.*, "Granted *that he is a scholar*, he may yet be mistaken"). A clause used in one of these ways is a substantive clause.

Suffix. See **Prefix.**

Superlative. See **Comparison.**

Syntactic. See **Syntax.**

Syntax. The relations that words, when they are combined in discourse, bear to one another (*e.g.*, the relation of "he" to "goes" in the predication "He goes," or of "carpenter" to "Nelson," in the predication "Nelson, the carpenter, is here") are called syntactic relations, or collectively syntax. Syntactic relations comprise (1) the relations a single word may bear to another word or to a group of words (*e.g.*, the relation of a subject to a verb, of an adjective to a substantive, of a noun to an adjective phrase, of a vocative substantive to a predication); and (2) the relations a predication may bear to another predication (*viz.*, the relation between a principal and a dependent clause and the relation between coördinate clauses).

Tense. The several sets of forms and combinations that a verb has when it represents action as occurring at different points of time are called its tenses. Of these sets there are six, called respectively the **present tense**, the **past tense**, the **future tense**, the **perfect tense**, the **past perfect tense**, and the **future perfect tense.** The tenses of a typical verb are shown on pages 379–384.

Transitive. A verb representing an action that necessarily affects some person or thing in such a way that the name of that person or thing may be made the direct object of the verb is called a **transitive verb** ; *e.g.*, *love*, *hate*, *have*, *carry*, *build*. A verb representing an action of such a kind that a direct object cannot logically be used with the verb is called an **intransitive verb** ; *e.g.*, *stand*, *arise*, *be*, *come*, *whimper*, *bark*, *quarrel*. Many verbs may be used either transitively or intransitively ; *e.g.*, "The fire burns brightly" ("burns" is intransitive); "He burns the paper" ("burns" is transitive); "The corn has grown" ("has grown" is intransitive) ; "He has grown a beard" ("has grown" is transitive).

Verb. A word used to assert an action, a condition, or the undergoing of an action; *e.g.*, *stand*, *strike*, *choose*, *be*, *become*, *remain*, *suffer*, *undergo*.

The various inflections and combinations (see **Voice**, **Mode**, **Tense**, **Person**, and **Number**) of a typical verb are shown in the table on pages 379–384. In this table the words *I*, *thou*, *he*, *we*, *you*, *they*, and *if* are inserted merely to show the way in which the forms they precede are used ; they should not be regarded as neces-

sary parts of those forms, for they are not parts at all. Words inclosed in parentheses are variants of the words they follow.

Virtual predication. See Section 244.

Vocative substantive. A substantive that indicates to whom the discourse is addressed; *e.g.*, "*Sir*, I salute you"; "I know all about it, *John*."

Voice. A verb is said to be in the **active voice** when it asserts that the person or thing represented by the subject is, does, or undergoes something; *e.g.*, "He strikes," "He heard," "I see." A verb is said to be in the **passive voice** when it asserts that something is done to the person or thing represented by the subject; *e.g.*, "He is struck," "He was heard," "I am seen." With one exception all the passive forms of any verb are composed of the several forms of the auxiliary *to be*, and the past participle of the principal verb; the one exception is the past participle itself. See the table opposite.

Vowel. The letters *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, and *u* are vowels. The letters *b*, *c*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *h*, *j*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *q*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *v*, *x*, and *z* are consonants. *W* when used as in *weak* and *y* when used as in *young* are consonants; *w* when used as in *how* and *y* when used as in *try* are vowels.

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB TO TAKE[1]

PRINCIPAL PARTS: take, took, taken

	ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
	Indicative mode			
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
PRESENT TENSE	SIMPLE 1. I take 2. thou takest 3. he takes (taketh)	 we take you take they take	1. I am taken 2. thou art taken 3. he is taken	we are taken you are taken they are taken
	EMPHATIC 1. I do take 2. thou dost take 3. he does (doth) take	 we do take you do take they do take		
	PROGRESSIVE 1. I am taking 2. thou art taking 3. he is taking	 we are taking you are taking they are taking		
PAST TENSE	SIMPLE 1. I took 2. thou tookest 3. he took	 we took you took they took	1. I was taken 2. thou wast (wert) taken 3. he was taken	we were taken you were taken they were taken
	EMPHATIC 1. I did take 2. thou didst take 3. he did take	 we did take you did take they did take		
	PROGRESSIVE 1. I was taking 2. thou wast (wert) taking 3. he was taking	 we were taking you were taking they were taking		
FUTURE TENSE	SIMPLE 1. I shall (will) take 2. thou wilt (shalt) take 3. he will (shall) take	 we shall (will) take you will (shall) take they will (shall) take	I shall (will) be taken, etc.	
	PROGRESSIVE I shall (will) be taking, etc.			

[1] See the explanatory remarks under **Verb**.

	ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE
	Indicative mode — continued		
PERFECT TENSE	SINGULAR	PLURAL	
	SIMPLE		
	1. I have taken	we have taken	I have been taken, etc.
	2. thou hast taken	you have taken	
	3. he has (hath) taken	they have taken	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I have been taking, etc.		
PAST-PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE		
	1. I had taken	we had taken	I had been taken, etc.
	2. thou hadst taken	you had taken	
	3. he had taken	they had taken	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I had been taking, etc.		
FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE		
	I shall (will) have taken, etc.		I shall (will) have been taken, etc.
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I shall (will) have been taking, etc.		
	Subjunctive mode		
PRESENT TENSE	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR / PLURAL
	SIMPLE		
	1. if I take	if we take	1. if I be taken / if we be taken
	2. if thou take	if you take	2. if thou be taken / if you be taken
	3. if he take	if they take	3. if he be taken / if they be taken
	EMPHATIC		
	1. if I do take	if we do take	
	2. if thou do take	if you do take	
	3. if he do take	if they do take	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	1. if I be taking	if we be taking	
	2. if thou be taking	if you be taking	
	3. if he be taking	if they be taking	

	ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
	Subjunctive mode — continued			
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
PAST TENSE	SIMPLE 1. if I took 2. if thou took 3. if he took	 if we took if you took if they took	1. if I were taken 2. if thou were (wert) taken 3. if he were taken	if we were taken if you were taken if they were taken
	EMPHATIC 1. if I did take 2. if thou did take 3. if he did take	 if we did take if you did take if they did take		
	PROGRESSIVE 1. if I were taking 2. if thou were (wert) taking 3. if he were taking	 if we were taking if you were taking if they were taking		
FUTURE TENSE	[The future subjunctive is exactly like the future indicative, except that *shall* and *will* are unchanged throughout; *e.g.*, *if thou will take*, *if thou shall be taken*, etc.]			
PERFECT TENSE	[The perfect subjunctive is exactly like the perfect indicative, except that *have* is unchanged throughout; *e.g.*, *if thou have taken*, *if he have been taken*, etc.]			
PAST-PERFECT TENSE	[The past-perfect subjunctive is exactly like the past-perfect indicative, except that *had* is unchanged throughout; *e.g.*, *if thou had taken*, *if thou had been taken*, etc.]			
FUTURE-PERFECT TENSE	[The future-perfect subjunctive is exactly like the future-perfect indicative, except that *shall* and *will* are unchanged throughout; *e.g.*, *if thou will have taken*, *if thou shall have been taken*, etc.]			

	ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE
		Conditional mode [1]	
PRESENT TENSE	SINGULAR	PLURAL	
	SIMPLE		
	1. I should (would) take	we should (would) take	I should (would) be taken, etc.
	2. thou wouldst (shouldst) take	you would (should) take	
	3. he would (should) take	they would (should) take	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I should (would) be taking, etc.		
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE		
	I should (would) have taken, etc.		I should (would) have been taken, etc.
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I should (would) have been taking, etc.		
		Potential mode [1]	
PRESENT TENSE	SINGULAR	PLURAL	
	SIMPLE		
	1. I may *or* can take	we may *or* can take	I may *or* can be taken, etc.
	2. thou mayst *or* canst take	you may *or* can take	
	3. he may *or* can take	they may *or* can take	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I may *or* can be taking, etc.		
PAST TENSE	SIMPLE		
	1. I might *or* could take	we might *or* could take	I might *or* could be taken, etc.
	2. thou mightst *or* couldst take	you might *or* could take	
	3. he might *or* could take	they might *or* could take	
	PROGRESSIVE		
	I might *or* could be taking, etc.		

[1] See the footnote on page 369.

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
	Potential mode — continued	
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE I may *or* can have taken, etc. PROGRESSIVE I may *or* can have been taking, etc.	I may *or* can have been taken, etc.
PAST-PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE I might *or* could have taken, etc. PROGRESSIVE I might *or* could have been taking, etc.	I might *or* could have been taken, etc.
	Obligative mode [1]	
PRESENT TENSE	SINGULAR / PLURAL SIMPLE 1. I must, *or* ought to, take / we must, *or* ought to, take 2. thou must, *or* oughtest to, take / you must, *or* ought to, take 3. he must, *or* ought to, take / they must, *or* ought to, take PROGRESSIVE I must, *or* ought to, be taking, etc.	I must, *or* ought to, be taken, etc.
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE I must, *or* ought to, have taken, etc. PROGRESSIVE I must, *or* ought to, have been taking, etc.	I must, *or* ought to, have been taken, etc.
	Imperative mode	
	SIMPLE: take EMPHATIC: do take PROGRESSIVE: be taking	be taken

[1] See the footnote on page 869.

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
	Infinitive mode	
PRESENT TENSE	SIMPLE INFINITIVE: to take PROGRESSIVE INFINITIVE: to be taking GERUND: taking	INFINITIVE: to be taken GERUND: being taken
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE INFINITIVE: to have taken PROGRESSIVE INFINITIVE: to have been taking GERUND: having taken	INFINITIVE: to have been taken GERUND: having been taken
	Participial mode	
PRESENT TENSE	taking	being taken
PAST TENSE	taken (used only with *have*)	taken
PERFECT TENSE	SIMPLE: having taken PROGRESSIVE: having been taking	having been taken

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Explanations of grammatical and other technical terms are in general not cited below, since they can be found in the alphabetical vocabulary on pages 360–378.

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